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Business Communication

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Business COMMUNICATION

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(1) language arts
(2) oral communication

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Preface

This text presents the fundamentals of the three basic forms of expression—oral, graphic, and written—and their coordination for effective communication.

An effort has been made to correlate the three methods, and to demonstrate that they are complementary parts of one process, rather than three separate processes. While it is frequently true in business that facts, ideas, conclusions, and decisions are conveyed from one person to another by one method of communication, it is also true that the communication might be more effective if two or three methods were combined. Common illustrations are the salesman's call two days after the customer has received a letter from him; the report presented in person and commented on by the reporter; the chart which is explained orally or in writing; the body of facts which is not only illustrated but also explained by a chart, graph, or tabulation.

The material in this text is written both for college students who are preparing to enter business or industry, and for men and women who are already in business and who wish to develop greater skill in communication. The material is practical. The principles involved are discussed and analyzed. Then, through exercises and problems, the principles are applied to typical cases and conditions. The result to be accomplished by the student is the building of a set of attitudes, habits, and responses which can be applied to similar cases and conditions in the future.

The three methods of communication are considered separately, but with frequent reference to the common principles and techniques. In addition, emphasis is placed on the combination and correlation of methods, in cases and problems.

Written communication is surveyed by way of representative forms of business writing. The types and forms of writing do not exhaust the possibilities, nor is any one type treated in complete detail. The pur-

pose of Part One is to establish a set of writing habits and standards, rather than to provide a handbook of business writing.

Part Two presents the fundamentals of the graphic language. This language is not the monopoly of professional artists and draughtsmen any more than the English language is the monopoly of professional writers. Skill in the informal use of graphic communication may be acquired as readily as skill in conversational English. Although graphic methods are particularly advantageous when one is dealing with statistics, the same principles are easily applied to many other purposes.

Graphic presentation facilitates thinking. Thinking is visual as well as verbal; consequently, training in the coordinated use of verbal and graphic expression increases one's powers of reasoning as well as of communication. Visual methods have distinct advantages with respect to the organization and development of both quantitative and qualitative ideas. For these reasons the graphic language is not only a useful tool for effective communication in business, but it may also be used as a language for reasoning and for organizing ideas before communicating them.

The material on oral communication, in Part Three, attempts particularly to orient the beginning student to the great number and variety of business situations which call for skill in oral communication.

Effective communication is not the result of knowing the tricks of speaking. The only mystery known to the successful speaker is the ability to discipline himself to hard work. Fortunately, the hard work can be reduced considerably by an understanding of the fundamentals of speech organization and of the standards of performance expected by the audience. This text attempts to supply both.

The fundamentals of speech developed here are by no means new, but their application varies somewhat from that presented in other texts on business speaking. The material has been tested by almost twenty years of experience in business speaking, consultation work, and in instructing several thousand adults in the areas of adult education, business, and industry.

This text has been built up over a period of nine years by a process of correlating business practice with academic thinking. The assistance which has come from the individuals and companies listed below has been considerable and valuable. The individuals contributed generously with ideas, opinions, criticisms, and specimens of business material. The companies contributed specimens and illustrations, and in many instances allowed company material to be used, either directly or indirectly.

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Walpole Woodworkers, Walpole, Massachusetts
Westinghouse Electric & Manufacturing Company, East Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania

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PART ONE

WRITTEN COMMUNICATION

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction to Business Communication

The communication of facts and ideas is essential to the conduct of business. It is not a separate and distinct activity, but an integral part of all business thinking and business administration. For purposes of classroom study, the elements of communication can be isolated and examined in detail; when these are understood, the separate elements can be applied as a unified whole to business thinking and action. Only when the latter step is achieved does the isolated study of reports, diction, or charts bear real fruit.

A business communication is successful when the receiver understands your ideas. You may wish to convince a customer of the quality of your product, or you may want to encourage a foreman to enforce safety regulations. Your success in business depends in large measure on your ability to formulate and convey just such ideas as these. You are not interested in speaking, writing, or drawing as ends in themselves, but as means for accomplishing your purpose.

Communication can be accomplished by one or many techniques, used alone or in combination. Sometimes one technique is sufficient; for example, a single business letter may be completely effective, while a combination of the same letter with charts and conversations would be both unnecessary and ridiculous. On other occasions, letters, speeches, and illustrations may be required. A similar isolation or combination of techniques takes place in other activities. In transportation, frequently portage is the obvious and appropriate method, but sometimes land, sea, and air carry must be employed and carefully coordinated. In planning for a large shipment, a business man or an agency tries to arrange the combination of methods of transportation that will result in successful delivery. In transmitting facts and ideas, the business man tries to combine the techniques that will result in effective communication.

UNIVERSAL AND CODED LANGUAGES

Language, broadly considered, includes any means of expressing feeling or thought. Organized symbols have been developed by various races and are designated according to their origin as English, Spanish, Chinese, and so on. Other languages are not limited by geographical or racial origins; facial expressions and simple pictures can be understood by peoples of all races. Similarly, the musician does not need an interpreter as he performs a series of concerts in different countries.

Languages may be divided into two broad classifications, universal and coded. Universal languages are those that are readily understood by all people, regardless of geographical, racial, or cultural background. Friendly smiles and threatening motions are examples. Coded languages include the many systems in which meanings have been associated with sounds and symbols; it is necessary to know the code before communication can take place.

As in many academic classifications, there is no definite dividing line between universal and coded languages. Some forms of expression are literally universal, but others approach the other extreme in which a highly complicated and secret code is employed. In general, however, communication is a fusion of universal and coded elements. The distinction is useful only because both universal and coded languages have their own characteristics and advantages.

Importance of Universal Languages

Universal languages—expressive action, appearance, pictures—are as ancient as civilization itself, but they are entirely inadequate to deal with many of the technical and abstract ideas of modern life. In spite of being insufficient, they are nevertheless tremendously important. They are always present along with coded languages, and they make a real contribution to the success or failure of the entire communication.

For example, if a technical expert is presenting valuable information, his voice must be audible and distinct or you cannot hear, much less interpret, what he says; his voice must be pleasant and well modulated or he will not retain your full attention and interest.

Advantages of Coded Languages

The history of coded languages also goes back to the beginning of civilization. Sound, gestures, and markings were early given meanings over and above their universal implications—meanings intelligible only to those familiar with the code being used. It is much easier to agree

upon the identity of the animal that the term *dog* will designate and then remember to use this term than to point out the dog or draw a picture of him.

Some of the topics in daily business communication deal with definite objects, persons, or places. Other discussions are concerned with broad classifications such as credit, assets, or predictions. Still other considerations involve qualitative concepts of kindness, value, morale, or good will. As the subject becomes increasingly abstract, coded languages become increasingly necessary. An engineer makes a simple drawing (universal language) of a turbogenerator, to which he adds notes and dimensions (coded language); but when he wishes to talk about the quality of efficiency, a drawing is not always helpful.

Expression versus Communication

Communication is a two-way process. It does not occur until a receiver understands what the speaker or writer has in mind. As in the use of electric current, there must be a closed circuit before current flows. Expression can occur in many ways even though there is no observer present, but communication occurs only when an observer receives and responds.

Impressions and responses are both transmitted and received in communication and the speaker must be alert to his listener's state of mind; the writer must try to determine in advance what the reader's responses will be.

The two-way nature of effective communication is illustrated in various activities; for example, the interview, platform communication, the newspaper business. In a successful interview each new remark is influenced by the preceding discussion. The effective platform speaker is conscious of communications from his audience. If they are restless, he knows that he must enliven the talk or conclude it; if they are listening eagerly, he knows that he has their interest. The newspaper editor observes carefully all communications from patrons, expressed in the form of subscriptions, letters from readers, advertising sales, and circulation figures.

There are many channels of expression. Some techniques—platform presence, writing, sketching—require careful cultivation and training. It is equally important to cultivate skill in reading the secondary communications from the receiver. When his state of mind is understood, the appropriate techniques of expression can be used to best advantage.

COORDINATION OF ALL FORMS OF EXPRESSION

Both universal and coded languages are integral parts of all business communications. To obtain optimum effectiveness, the business writer or speaker must use the best possible proportion of charts, letters, and interviews in the same way that the business manager must combine land, labor, and capital for efficient production. In each situation the optimum proportions are determined by the merits of the individual case.

In all means of communication widely used today, the person initiating the communication expresses himself through many channels, whether or not he intends to do so. If he is nervous, this condition is immediately apparent and detracts from the effectiveness of his spoken message; if he uses schoolboy slang, he betrays carelessness and inexperience in business dealings. Such elements as phrases, pronunciations, mannerisms, and the appearance of letters contribute to the total impression created. Although the receiver may not analyze a particular impression, it nevertheless influences his responses, sometimes without his knowledge.

We find, then, that communication takes place through many media, which employ both universal and coded languages. To create the desired effect, they must be coordinated and directed toward saying the same thing. An excellent use of coded languages may be hampered and even contradicted by careless use of universal languages. When the universal language of voice quality is not in keeping with the coded language of the verbal statements, the receiver tends to disregard the statements. As in other phases of business activity, proficiencies in specialized techniques are valuable—provided they are integrated to accomplish the necessary result.

CHAPTER 2

Written Composition and Communication

In business, written communication frequently is a second choice or a last resort. If a salesman can approach his customer in person and apply his selling technique, it is likely to be a poor procedure for him to sit in an office and write a sales letter. If a business man can go into another man's office for a conference, that approach seems more direct and efficient than a memorandum or a report. Much of the practical communication of business therefore takes oral rather than written form. For two reasons, however, the business man makes constant use also of written communication.

The first reason is the obvious one of geographical separation.

The second reason is a combination of the nature of the material and the relationship between the persons. Some material can be presented to better advantage in written than in oral form. This is likely to be on account of the complexity of the material, its technical nature, or its extensiveness; writing is the clearest, most complete and efficient means of communication. Written material has the further advantage of being permanent—that is, it can be kept on record and referred to later—and it is highly important that many items of business communication should be permanent. In other situations, some personal element makes writing the desirable form of communication. The writer may be able to organize and present his ideas more effectively in writing than by talking. The reader may be more receptive to written material than to oral material; an executive may dislike listening for an hour to a discussion of a plan or suggestion, but he may like the same plan or suggestion if it is presented concisely in writing.

As business progressed through the years, written communication developed into what is usually called *business English*. That term is misleading, however, since it implies a peculiar and separate language set apart for the exclusive use of the business man. The fact of the matter is that business English is simply *English in business;* better still, it is *written communication in business.*

The language used by the business man is fundamentally the language that the tradesman, the teacher, the sailor, or the statesman uses. It is controlled by the same principles of rhetoric, grammar, punctuation, sentence structure, and paragraph form. It has at its disposal the same vocabulary.

Moreover, business writing is capable of the same effects on the reader as those that can be produced by other kinds of writing. Emotional appeal is the best illustration of this fact. We think of poetry as intensely emotional, and of fiction, oratory, and various other kinds of expression as emotional to a degree. But we tend to think of business writing as unemotional, since we assume that it is factual. It seems to appeal to the reader's understanding rather than to his emotions or his sensibilities. We overlook the fact that business writing may make a powerful appeal to the emotions. When a letter from the president of a business organization actually stimulates loyalty among his employees, or when advertising copy leads a customer to buy an automobile that will impress the family living down the street, language is being used to affect the emotions of the reader quite as much as his rational faculties. It is important to remember that language as it is used in business has the same amazing and mysterious potentialities that it has in other literary uses.

The quality that distinguishes English in business is its specialized use. In any technical or professional work, whether business, law, medicine, or diplomacy, the worker uses his native language as he always has used it, and as he uses it outside his work. But there are special terms and forms, distinctive phrases and locutions, unusual methods of organizing and presenting material, peculiar to the profession. The worker therefore adapts his language to the demands of his work.

Business writing is, then, a functional use of the language. When he expresses himself in writing, the business man always is attempting to accomplish something definite, even though the method may be indirect. The writing he does is utilitarian—a means to an end rather than an end in itself. In the writer's attitude, plan, and execution the emphasis is primarily on practical rather than artistic considerations.

BUSINESS WRITING AND ADVERTISING

There is no clear line of distinction between business writing in general and advertising in particular. Advertising copy obviously is both business writing and advertising, as are numerous pamphlets, bulletins,

and reports. In this discussion an effort has been made to treat only those forms of material that are not primarily advertising, but in this connection two important qualifications must be kept in mind.

Many pieces of business writing are incidental advertising. Often the primary purpose of written material is to convey facts and ideas to a reader or a group of readers; the secondary purpose is to advertise. An annual report, for example, may be prepared to tell the stockholders the progress and condition of the company. At the same time, indirect advertising is likely to be accomplished by the selection, statement, and emphasis of the material; and by more apparent means, such as lists of company products or pictures of company plants and equipment. A handbook may be prepared for instructional purposes within the company organization, but the content may be so planned and written as to add to the prestige of the company management.

Frequently the secondary or advertising appeal is directed to readers other than those for whom the material is prepared. Examples are the various pieces of writing prepared for internal use by the company, but available to and sometimes urged upon the general public. The company hopes that the written material representative of company policy, procedure, and accomplishment, will stimulate approval in the public mind and thereby build good will.

Thus it must be kept in mind constantly that any piece of business writing is likely to be used for several purposes; either consciously or unconsciously, the writer is employing one means to accomplish several ends, and more often than not, one of those ends is indirect advertising.

In its method of presentation, most business writing incorporates principles of advertising. The appearance of a page of business writing often is as important as its content. And by appearance is meant not only neatness and precision, but design and layout. The page should be planned and designed, not merely written upon. Clarity, emphasis, readability, and interest can best be achieved by such techniques as arrangement, use of headings and labels, ingenuity in the use of spacing, margins, and column width.

The business writer cannot afford to think of a page as a sheet of paper to be filled with writing from margin to margin and from top to bottom. He must think of his page as having the same potentialities as an advertising spread or a roadside billboard. His reader must see the written material not only as a series of facts but also as an attractive and interesting design. Increasingly in recent years the basic principles of advertising have been applied to business writing.

THE ELEMENTS OF COMPOSITION

It is not the purpose of this discussion to summarize English grammar and rhetoric. There are, though, some elements and principles of composition that apply particularly to business writing.

The Phrase

A useful view of writing, although a mechanical one if carried to extremes, is that it is basically a building procedure. The materials used are units of varying size—words, phrases, clauses, sentences, paragraphs. Any piece of writing, whether classic or trash, is simply a series of these units, arranged by the writer in a definite pattern. The value of this view is that it emphasizes the flexibility of writing, and the unlimited possibilities of language when it is combined and recombined in working units.

The phrase, therefore, should be thought of as a mechanism of expression. It is a group of words that lacks the grammatical requirements of a clause (*both* subject and verb), but that is unified in content and is used as a unit, or as a part of speech.

An adjectival phrase is used as a unit to modify—that is, to describe or to qualify—the name of a person, place, or thing.

Answer immediately with the name *of your department.*
The salesman *with spirit and energy* is the one we want.
The road *to ruin* lay before him.

An adverbial phrase is used to modify a verb, that is, it qualifies the action expressed by the verb.

He should work *at his own desk.*
He has been transferred *to another department.*
The job was done *with unusual speed.*

The Clause

An *independent clause* is a unit of statement that is self-sufficient grammatically because it contains an independent subject and verb, and self-sufficient in meaning because it states an idea or fact that is complete and clear in itself, or easily understood from the context in which the clause is used.

Honesty is reported to be the best policy.
The foreman called the meeting to order.
He answered, "No."

A *dependent clause* is a clause that functions as a part of speech. It either modifies some element in the independent clause to which it is attached or serves as one of the elements in that independent clause.

The salesman *who has spirit* is the one we want.
The road *that leads to ruin* lay before him.
He said *that he would accept the responsibility.*
The winner will be announced *when Mr. Black returns.*

The Sentence

The sentence is a unit of statement, and its form is merely a way of emphasizing that fact. The only justification for beginning a series of words with a capital letter and ending it with a period or question mark is that those devices convey to the reader's mind the fact that here is material, or idea content, to be seen by the eye and understood by the mind as a unit.

Since units of content vary, sentences vary from brief statements like, *Get out!* to long, involved statements of a hundred words or more. Regardless of length or complexity, however, the sentence always is a unit. The most significant thing about the sentence is its possibility of variation and flexibility. The range of variations to which the sentence may be subjected is practically unlimited, and a detailed knowledge of all of the devices is not necessary. A valuable point of view toward writing, however, is an awareness of these possibilities.

Flexibility in the use of sentence parts is a means to three important ends: variety of statement, subordination, sentence order.

Variety of Statement

Frequently the same idea element can be stated by several different expression elements. In the following sentence, for example, the same sentence parts take the forms of words, phrases, and clauses successively.

The *quick-tempered* man is handicapped in his relations with *his subordinates.*
The man *with a quick temper* is handicapped in his relations with *persons under his direction.*
The man *who has a quick temper* is handicapped in his relations with those *who are under his control.*

There is no easy formula for choosing forms of expression, nor is there one perfect form. Possibilities include variety in the emphasis, contrast, and length of sentences.

Subordination

In English, four degrees of idea emphasis exist in four variations of sentence construction. The most emphatic construction is the short, simple sentence—that is, the single independent clause.

Mr. Burke is quick tempered, is a brief statement of fact, which gains emphasis from independent clause construction, and from being set up as a separate sentence.

If the sentence is changed to, *Mr. Burke, who is quick tempered, wins the admiration of all who know him,* the original construction is reduced to a subordinate clause, and the fact becomes an incidental item of information rather than the point of the sentence.

In the sentence, *In his usual quick-tempered way, Mr. Burke answered the criticism,* the original idea becomes a phrase.

A fourth possibility is, *The quick-tempered Mr. Burke answered the criticism,* in which the idea takes the form of a word.

Obviously the variations in emphasis are not pronounced, but one important principle is demonstrated by these illustrations: the independent clause is a complete and final statement; to say more, the writer must start another major construction. It follows logically that the independent clause should be used for parts of the statement that are important enough to justify that form of construction. Other parts should be subordinated, or stated as dependent clauses, phrases, or words.

Intelligent application of subordination in the sentence results in an appropriate distribution of emphasis among its component parts.

> Mr. B. J. Henderson is our veteran New York salesman and has been calling on the trade for twenty-two years; he has been ill for several weeks, but is slowly recovering.

In this sentence, which appeared as a news item in an employees' magazine, the purpose is to report the illness and recovery of Mr. Henderson. The first part of the sentence is an incidental identification of the man and a reminder to readers who know or have heard of him. As the sentence is stated, the two parts, or items of information, seem to be of equal importance in meaning and interest. An appropriate distribution of emphasis by construction might produce several versions of the sentence; one would be

> Our veteran New York salesman, Mr. B. J. Henderson, who has been calling on the trade for twenty-two years, is slowly recovering from an illness of several weeks.

Intelligent application of sentence subordination results in variety of sentence length.

> This manual has been prepared under the title *Travel Manual.* It contains all existing regulations on travel and travel expenses. It is the first of a series to be known collectively as the *Handbook of Procedures.* Subsequent manuals on other subjects will be issued from time to time.

These sentences show not only overemphasis on unimportant idea parts, but poor style. Nothing is more deadly than a succession of sentences of the same length, particularly a succession of short, primer sentences. Again, there are various possible versions. One is

> This manual is the first of a series that will be known as the *Handbook of Procedures*, and that will be added to from time to time. Under the title *Travel Manual*, it contains all existing regulations on travel and travel expense.

Sentence Order

Since a sentence is made up of component parts, each of which expresses a portion of the sentence statement, there are various ways in which these parts can be arranged, or strung together.

Sentence order (sequence of parts within the sentence) may be a strong or weak characteristic, an asset or a liability to the sentence. Effective sentence order helps to produce a sentence that is quickly read and easily understood. Poor sentence order is a result of misplacement of parts. The most important elements in this respect are (1) modifier and the word or phrase modified, (2) a pronoun and its antecedent, (3) subject and verb, (4) verb and object. Since each of these pairs of items constitutes a close grammatical and logical relationship, the items in the pair should be as near together as possible, and the relationship between them should be evident at once to the reader.

Good sentence order contributes to the interest and the appeal of the sentence. One arrangement may be awkward and lumbering; a different arrangement of the same parts may make a smooth and rhythmic, and therefore effective, sentence.

> A publication called *The Printed Word* reports a piece of research done by a group of retailers at the request of a certain manufacturer, the results of which carry a cogent meaning for everyone who sells.

More is wrong with this sentence than order of parts, but the placing of the *which* clause confuses and encumbers the statement. Although the reader will not believe permanently that the results are "of the manufacturer" rather than "of a piece of research," the reader must rearrange the sentence mentally before he understands the statement, simple as it is. Mental rearrangement by the reader always means a break in the reading, and a shift of attention from the thing said to the manner of saying—invariable signs of poor writing.

> A carbon copy of a letter is to be written on the back of the letter to which it is a reply whenever this is possible.

Here again there is a combination of deficiencies. The use of the passive voice gives the sentence a flabby effect which is heightened by the trailing clause at the end. With the clause shifted to the beginning of the sentence and the main statement made in the active voice, the sentence becomes

> Whenever it is possible, the secretary is to write a carbon copy of a letter on the back of the letter to which it is a reply.

The Paragraph

In explanatory writing, the paragraph can best be thought of as a unit of discussion made up of sentences, each of which is a unit of statement. In the building process of composition the paragraph is a block of material, a section made up of smaller sections fitting into and contributing to the total plan and construction of the whole piece of writing.

This unit quality is demonstrated by the physical form of the paragraph. Indentation on the printed page is a signal to the reader that a new group of facts or ideas is being started. The reader sees a page of printed material as a sequence of sections. It follows that material that is broken into paragraphs is more easily read and understood than material that flows down the page in an unbroken mass. The paragraph, therefore, is an aid to ease and speed of reading, and an aid to the facility with which the reader follows the discussion from section to section and from topic to topic.

The unit of discussion is developed within itself. Four methods of paragraph development are commonly found in business writing.

Development by details is division of the discussion unit into its component parts, and their development in logical order.

> During the past year a number of changes have been made in the department. John D. Bliss has been added to the personnel as an assistant to Mr. Fogg. All office equipment has been improved in minor ways, and several pieces of new equipment have been added. Mr. Fogg has instituted several changes in method and routine, with the result that the work of the department now moves more rapidly and smoothly than it has at any time in the past. Departmental morale has been greatly improved by these changes, as well as by the percentage bonus system that was inaugurated last year. In every respect the department is in better condition than it has ever been.

Development by illustration is a statement of the general idea and its demonstration by a single illustration or a series of illustrations.

> Many companies make an effort to build up good will by urging the public to become acquainted with their facilities and operation. A

beverage company, located in an area where there was considerable competition, enhanced its public relations appreciably by an "At Home Week." During this period the entire plant was not only open to public inspection, but the public was offered bus transportation to the plant, and visitors were taken on a conducted tour which followed the steps of the bottling process. They were offered movies, samples, and souvenirs. The company was convinced that the money spent produced a high return in both good will and actual sales. It is interesting to note that the next year three other companies in the same area held "at home" days or weeks.

Development by comparison and contrast shows the relationship between two parts of an idea, between two different ideas, or between two words, technical terms, or objects; or, in the paragraph that defines and explains, clarifies something unknown and unfamiliar by comparison and contrast with something already known.

> Under the Multiple Management system we all have an opportunity to share the profits of the organization. But in this system we must all share in the responsibilities also. Under the old plan, capital and management shared heavily in the profits, but likewise bore the responsibility alone. To be successful under Multiple Management there cannot be a one-sided arrangement—each employee must help produce increasing quantities of merchandise; help weed out those employees who are idlers and not willing to work with us and share our responsibilities; take care of the plant and its machinery and equipment; make this business one that will continue to grow steadily, with increased profits to us all. If we have years that are not profitable and dividends cannot be paid and there are no profits to share, all of us will be satisfied with a little less. That is the fruit of Multiple Management.

Development by cause and effect is demonstration of the relationship between two elements (action and its result, action and its motivation, theory and application, and so on).

> Railroads, the congressman asserted, are the one branch of transportation that we cannot as a nation do without. Without railroads the country would be helpless, yet at the same time, he urged, railroads must win and maintain the respect of those who employ them. He suggested that, in so far as the financial status of American railroads is concerned, "economic hills and valleys might be leveled out better if the railroads had more bonds and less stock in their capitalizations."

If the writer is thinking logically about his material, he uses the suitable method of paragraph development without consciously choosing or recognizing it. Furthermore, as the above examples demonstrate, he is likely to combine methods within a paragraph.

Two other principles that apply particularly to the paragraph as it

is used in business writing are use of the topic sentence, and conscious violation of paragraph unity.

Since the paragraph is a unit of discussion, it is capable of reduction to a single summarizing statement. If the writer makes and uses that single statement, it becomes the *topic sentence* of the paragraph.

Frequently the topic or summarizing sentence is stated at the beginning of the paragraph so that the reader can understand immediately the general idea of the paragraph. If he wants the details, or the demonstration of the idea, he reads on; if not, his eye and attention go on to the next paragraph indentation. This method of reading, while resulting in sad sacrifice of carefully written material in the body of the paragraph, results also in rapid reading and immediate understanding. The business man frequently wants only to grasp the material quickly, or he wants to get at the essentials quickly, and reread later for the details and supporting data.

This use of the topic sentence easily results in a monotonous, mechanical style; it applies best to material that is completely factual and designed to be read rapidly for factual grasp.

In most kinds of writing, lack of paragraph unity is regarded as an abomination. If the material sprawls beyond its boundaries, if indentations appear in the midst of developments of topic ideas rather than between them, the writer is considered to be careless or inept. In business writing, however, a useful device for securing clarity and emphasis is *deliberate violation of paragraph unity*.

For example, assume that a topic idea to be developed is a conclusion supported by three reasons or causes. A unified paragraph development would include the conclusion and its three supporting reasons within one unit of discussion. If one of the reasons is particularly important, however, or if the writer wants to emphasize it because it is of special interest to the reader, he may write two paragraphs instead of one. The first paragraph would contain the conclusion and two reasons; the second would contain the third reason. Since the single idea becomes conspicuous on the page, it receives more attention than it would if it were in the first paragraph, and it impresses itself upon the mind of the reader.

In addition to emphasis on individual ideas and facts, display possibilities are enhanced by paragraphs that lack conventional unity. The writer can break up and vary the appearance of the page and can make an attractive spread of material, even though at the expense of paragraph unity.

It does not follow, of course, that business writing is disjointed and disorganized. Violation of paragraph unity must be kept under control.

Style

The traditional definition of style is "Style is the man." The statement means, apparently, that style is made up of those qualities and characteristics of a piece of writing that prove the existence of a writer with a personality, rather than the functioning of a machine with an automatic pencil.

If we grant that style is the reflection of the personality of the writer, we conclude that, like personality itself, it is intangible. Yet intangible qualities can have a tangible basis or source.

Some elements of personality that are the background to and the source of style are the way in which the writer's mind works; his sense of humor or lack of it; his kindliness; the degree of his self-importance and self-satisfaction; his feeling of security, or lack of it; his attitude toward the subject about which he is writing; his attitude toward the person to whom he is writing; his consciousness of words and of their value. These traits are examples, not a definitive list.

Style is a quality in writing that can be appreciated and reacted to without being fully understood or analyzed, just as personality itself can be reacted to in an uncritical way.

From many literary compositions, definite characteristics of the writer can be deduced. His clear, logical, incisive mental habits may be apparent, or his inaccuracy and superficiality. The writer may reveal himself to be pompous or self-effacing, whimsical or phlegmatic, flippant or grim. These characteristics are reflected not only by the ideas and statements that the writer chooses to use, but by the way he phrases and emphasizes his material.

Since style is temperament and personality, it would seem that an individual's style is as much a part of him as the color of his eyes, or his racial background. It should follow that style is fixed and invariable in the individual. Yet we see writers assuming a special style for a special occasion, or changing style as they choose. The accomplished politician wins the support of different groups of constituents by use of different styles of discourse. The blackguard gains the confidence of his victim largely by his use of style. The professional writer follows a historical novel with the pseudo autobiography of a dope addict or of a motion picture star. From these and many other illustrations it would appear that style can be put on and off like a coat. But the qualification, of course, is that the writer must have real skill and art. For most writers, style is an element over which there is little control, and about which little is done consciously.

It is true that style may change as the writer changes over a period

of time. A decrease in self-consciousness may be reflected in the person's later writing, or a profound experience may affect style. Certainly the process of maturing and aging through the years shows in a continuous flow of writing. But it is difficult deliberately to create successive, distinctive personalities so that written productions will be different in style.

The other possibility is that of working from the surface down, rather than from the personality out. There are, therefore, numerous stylistic exercises and formulas that are used in courses in literary creation; some are valuable, some are completely bad.

One of the few ways in which style can be influenced directly and effectively is by skillful use of a diversified vocabulary. With the right vocabulary and the proper control of it, the writer can express, either deliberately or unconsciously, whatever personality he has.

There are various exercises and formulas for vocabulary improvement. Their limitations are that they tend to seem mechanical, and to become ends in themselves, instead of means to an end. Furthermore, most of them are laborious. For example, if a person looks up all unfamiliar words while reading a magazine article, he learns superficially a number of new words, but he also learns to dislike reading magazine articles. Or if he looks up, memorizes, and uses in conversation twenty new words each week, he increases his vocabulary, but he is likely to use words in a forced and mechanical way, and he is sure to be regarded by his friends as a monstrosity.

Real vocabulary improvement comes primarily if not completely from word consciousness—an attitude that is made up of an awareness of words and their possibilities, an interest in words for their own sake, an ear for new words and for old words in new uses. Frequently the effective vocabulary is not impressively large, but is flexible and fluid; the user has complete control of it, and can get his best effects by using a common word in an individual way.

Some phases of word consciousness can be developed, and can be practiced deliberately.

Variety and Flexibility

Anyone can watch what he writes and says to determine whether or not his use of words is repetitious. Has he pet words and phrases that go off in his conversation and writing at regular intervals like set pieces of fireworks? Is his vocabulary limber, or muscle-bound? A valuable mental habit is that of thinking of a word as a member of a group, not as an isolated specimen. Cultivating the habit of synonyms and antonyms fills the vocabulary with range and choice of words. *Answer*

suggests its equivalent *reply, retort, response, rejoinder;* and the writer can pick the one that fits the context, instead of relying solely on *answer.*

In business writing one frequently must say the same thing repeatedly—in routine memoranda, for example, or in a series of bulletins and reports. Even though the material can be changed only slightly, the phrasing (and thereby the effect) can be changed considerably if the writer's vocabulary is flexible.

The Exact Word

Exactness of phrasing depends more on connotation than on denotation. Two words may have the same literal meaning, but quite different suggestions, implications, and appeals to the imagination. *Work, toil, labor,* and *drudgery* have the same general meaning. But, *James Hill's work is bookkeeping,* is a very different statement from, *For James Hill, bookkeeping is drudgery. Ineptitude, inability, impotence,* and *incompetence* form another illustration. If each of the words should be given as the reason for the discharge from employment of one of five men, the surrounding circumstances of the different cases would of necessity be considerably different.

The exact word always is the one that conveys most accurately and closely, not only the idea and meaning of the writer, but his attitude, emotion, opinion, and point of view.

The Exact Transition

Transitional devices are words and phrases that indicate relationships. Like marks of punctuation, they mean little themselves, but tell considerable about the relationship of the elements that they connect. *However, for example,* and *on the other hand* have practically no idea content—their major function is not to say something, but to act as symbols.

Since much business writing is factual and closely developed, it is important that the reader understand quickly and easily the relationship between parts of a sentence, between sentences, and between paragraphs. Frequently, of course, the relationship is so clear as to need no label or guidepost.

But when labels are used, they should be not only accurate but varied. *And, but, however, also, firstly, lastly, in conclusion* are overused to the point of tedium. For all of them there are substitutes and alternatives. Furthermore, the substitute may label the idea relationship more accurately. *At first glance* and *on further consideration* may introduce two successive paragraphs more exactly than *in the first*

place and *in the second place*. More important, the reader may get in mind more easily the sequence and relationship of the two paragraph ideas.

Trite Words and Phrases

Expressions like *at all times, at hand, field, along the lines of, due consideration, at the present time,* and *I wish to say* illustrate the threadbare jargon from which business writing suffers.

Obviously, a writer in the twentieth century cannot say everything in a bright, fresh, and original way—too many other writers have come before him and have used the language. But no writer can be excused if he uses repeatedly the trite words and phrases that fall automatically into place. Many of them are poor, weak locutions because they always have been; others lost years ago whatever idea and interest they had.

Triteness is a definite deficiency in style because it implies laxity and lack of imagination in the writer. He has used the first phrase that came into his head, instead of considering it and discarding or rephrasing it.

Awareness of language is the only means of avoiding or eliminating triteness. If an expression comes to mind easily and sounds familiar, the only intelligent attitude is one of skepticism. It may come easily and sound familiar because it is trite, or because it is new and individual. The important point is that it should be considered before it is used.

Prefixes and Suffixes

An understanding of prefixes and suffixes is a direct and useful means of developing word consciousness. It provides the writer with a device for both recognizing and building words. Prefixes affect the meanings of the root words to which they are attached.

PREFIX	MEANING	EXAMPLE
ante	before, in time, place or position	antedate, antecedent
anti	against, opposed to, preventive of	antidote, antisocial
in	into, in, toward, within, on	include, incorporate, influence, insinuate
	(*in* becomes *il* before *l*)	illuminate, illusion
	(*in* becomes *ir* before *r*)	irrigate, irradiate
	(*in* becomes *im* before *b*, *m*, or *p*)	imbibe, impress, immerse
in	not, without	indifferent, inaudible, infinite, insane
	(*in* becomes *il* before *l*)	illegal, illiterate

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PREFIX	MEANING	EXAMPLE
	(*in* becomes *ir* before *r*)	irregular, irredeemable
	(*in* becomes *im* before *m* or *p*)	immaterial, impertinent
inter	between, among	interaction, interfere
mis	bad, wrong	misdirect, misspell
un	not	undeniable, unnecessary, unnatural, unnerve

Suffixes have the useful function of changing the part of speech of a word rather than changing its meaning.

SUFFIX	MEANING	EXAMPLE
able	capacity, fitness	eatable, returnable, redeemable
or, er	agent, doer, one who has to do with	miller, adviser, elevator
ness	state, condition, quality, degree	kindness, uselessness
ous	full of, having the qualities of	various, riotous, poisonous
ish	belonging to, similar to, resembling	bookish, childish, outlandish
ize	to subject to, to make like	satirize, cauterize
ee	object of an action, receiver of a right or privilege	assignee, employee, grantee, pledgee

These specimen prefixes and suffixes merely show the possibilities. The important general fact that derives from them is that a knowledge of the more common prefixes and suffixes, and of how they are used, results in some definite vocabulary advantages.

Words are thought of as members of groups, not lone individuals. *Material, materialize, materially,* and *immaterial* make up a comfortable community. If the possibilities of change are known, one word suggests another and often better word.

Words are more easily understood if they are seen to be made up of recognizable parts. *Irredeemable,* for example, is understood as an elaboration of the root word *deem.* When they are taken apart and the parts recognized individually, unfamiliar words often become familiar. Commonly misspelled words are not so easily misspelled. One cannot avoid the correct spelling of *unnecessary,* if he thinks of it as the root word *necessary,* with the prefix *un.* Repeated application of this process makes for both correct spelling and an intelligent attitude toward words.

Words come to have some semblance of system and order. Instead of

thinking of words as arbitrary and treacherous arrangements of letters, one thinks of them as possessing ingenious and interesting personalities.

Technical Terms

In any specialized or professional use of the language, technical terms necessarily play a large part. The special terms, phrases, locutions, and expressions of business, therefore, are the backbone of the business writer's vocabulary. It is apparent that they should be used accurately and carefully.

Two other factors are not so apparent. One is that technical language should be gauged consciously to the technical background and understanding of the reader. To the nontechnical reader a parade of specialized terms and expressions is both confusing and irritating—irritating because the reader gets the impression that the writer either is being inconsiderate, or is showing off his technical vocabulary.

The other factor is that technical words, if used with restraint and precision, tend to build up a quality of authority and reliability in any piece of writing. They help to persuade the reader that the writer knows his material, and the confidence of the reader is important to the final result accomplished by a piece of writing.

There is no short cut to a vocabulary that functions as a pliable tool of composition. The really effective vocabulary is the result of a long period of interest in words, and consciousness of their values and possibilities. The intelligent, alert, and receptive mind gradually stores up, word by word, the best of what it comes upon. The eventual result is a vocabulary, not necessarily astounding in the scope and rarity of its content, but capable of infinitely varied use.

Atmosphere

Atmosphere is another overtone that builds up within a piece of writing. It is even less tangible than style, but without being able to define atmosphere the reader is aware of it, and it contributes to his impression of and reaction to the material.

In general, the sources of atmosphere are the material used, the writer's personality as reflected by his style, and the writer's emotional attitude toward his material and toward his reader.

The horror story, for example, builds up an eerie atmosphere largely because of the hair-raising events and the uncanny setting. Or, the cheerful writer contributes infectious cheerfulness to his material. The pessimism of the prophet is reflected in his prophecy and fills the reader with a sense of gloom and doom. Or the emotional upheaval that the journalistic sob sister experiences, or pretends, upon

seeing a little boy weeping in a blizzard, produces an atmosphere of pathos in his story of the incident. In all such instances a subtle process is at work to build up in the reader an emotional state comparable with that of the writer at the time of writing.

In business writing, four kinds of atmosphere are easily identified. They are best demonstrated in terms of contrast: (1) cheerfulness and optimism, (2) pessimism, (3) reader consideration, and (4) writer consideration.

A report or recommendation may be convincing and effective, in part at least, because of the feeling of confidence and assurance that pervades it. The reader somehow comes to believe that the writer is thoroughly optimistic, and the writer's mood tends to be reproduced in the reader. Of course the writer must be more than glib and brash; his optimism must come from knowledge and sincere conviction. The specific means by which the writer conveys his optimism are difficult to determine. One means is positive, assured phrasing. If the writer uses the sentence, *This problem, while difficult, can be solved if these three measures are put into effect*, he gives the impression that the difficulty is not insurmountable. Positive phrasing is highly important, and should be watched carefully by the writer.

On the other hand, a piece of writing may indicate that the writer is halfhearted or unsure. A corresponding feeling of doubt and pessimism grows in the reader's mind. If the writer uses the sentence, *It is extremely doubtful if this difficulty can be eliminated unless these three measures are put into effect*, he is writing a definitely negative sentence. Of course he may deliberately phrase his statement in that way to emphasize the importance and necessity of the three measures, but the effect of the sentence is none the less discouraging. The problem or difficulty seems to be impossible of solution.

One of the worst exhibitions of an attempt to create atmosphere is forced cheerfulness—the too obvious attempt to be friendly, hearty, and convivial. Some writers who adopt the big brother attitude, or try to create the one-big-happy-family atmosphere succeed only in being artificial and transparently insincere. They overplay the part, and the effect is similar to that produced by the person who tries so hard to be charming that he becomes repulsive.

A really effective atmosphere in business writing is the impression that the writer has prepared his material with the reader definitely in mind. This impression comes from the material selected and used, and from the emphasis that is placed on different parts of the material. Reasons for a conclusion are reasons that will appeal to the reader. Benefits of a proposal are those that will be to the advantage of the

reader. Ideas that will antagonize the reader by clashing with his self-interest, beliefs, and prejudices, are minimized, or rearranged and deemphasized. By these and similar devices, the writer builds up an atmosphere of reader consideration.

The opposite effect is created if the material obviously was written with the writer's interests in mind. The writer often is motivated by self-interest, but that motivation should be toned down and the emphasis and interpretation should be shifted.

Most business writing is directly personal in character. The writer of fiction creates his material for a large reading public, or for a type of reader. The writer in business usually directs his material to a particular person or group whom he knows in terms of personality, desires, and kind of mind. To a certain extent, therefore, it is easier for the business writer to create the desired atmosphere.

It is important to be conscious of atmosphere, and to attempt to create a favorable one, since it has a direct effect on the total impression of a piece of writing. The reader may approve of the logic of the material, but his approval is conditioned and limited if he is vaguely aware of an unpleasant atmosphere. On the other hand, the reader is impressed by the material and favorably disposed toward the writer if the atmosphere is right.

The following section of a letter from a sales manager to one of his salesmen illustrates the way in which style and atmosphere become evident as one reads a piece of writing and reacts to it. Without being too specific, we can conclude that the sales manager is a pleasant, reasonable individual and that his relations with his subordinate are informal and friendly. We can conclude further that the letter would have a wholesome effect on the discouraged salesman.

> So you think you'd better go out and shoot yourself because you didn't get the Stillman account. Well, don't. To be sure, Stillman is a tidy piece of business and the commission would have been a pleasant item in your total, not to mention the way the contract would have shown up in the departmental figures for the quarter. But what of it? There are still plenty of fish in the sea. And after looking over the figures for this month I'd say that you still are the best salesman in the department, as you proved last year by carrying off the President's Award.
>
> So don't waste your energy in moping. The Stillman contract will come up again, you know, in two years. That will be another day. In the meantime, carry on.

In the same situation, a cool, reserved sales manager might express himself quite differently, and might create an altogether different effect on the reader.

I have received your comment on your failure to secure the Stillman contract. I regret, as you do, the loss of this important item of business, since, as you well know, it is a valuable contact for our company and the business resulting from the contract would be important in terms of the accomplishment of our department during the present quarter.

I feel that I should point out to you, however, that both you as a salesman and our department as an integral part of the company have enjoyed an unusually successful year, up to the present time. One contract, therefore, however important it may seem at the moment, is not actually a decisive factor in the total accomplishment of the year.

Please be assured that I have complete confidence in you, and that I consider you to be one of the more valuable members of my department.

THE MECHANICS OF COMPOSITION

Defects in Construction

In business writing, a defect is a deficiency in grammar, rhetoric, or diction that detracts from the simple, direct, and quick communication of ideas.

The following list includes only those defects that seem to occur most easily and most frequently in both student and professional writing.

Sentence Fragment

A sentence fragment is a phrase or a dependent clause used as a complete sentence. Although the fragment may be used effectively in some kinds of business material, the writer should know what he is doing and should avoid the clumsy fragment that has no justification.

The plan is the result of the decision made in July. Which the committee agreed on unanimously at the time.

The plan is the result of the decision made in July, a decision on which the committee agreed unanimously at that time.

The accounts having been totaled so that the figures would be ready for use at the meeting.

The accounts have been totaled so that the figures will be ready for use at the meeting.

Split Construction

Every sentence contains grammatical parts that should be arranged for greatest clarity of meaning, as well as correct grammatical structure. The most common combinations are (1) subject and verb, (2) parts of a verb phrase, (3) modifier and noun or verb modified. At least temporary confusion results when any one of these combinations is split by intervening words. If the reader must look back over the

sentence and rearrange the parts, the sentence is a poor one because the reader is doing work that the writer should have done for him.

You as an executive of one of Boston's largest firms engaged in the lumber business know how important these railroad regulations are.

As an executive of one of Boston's largest firms engaged in the lumber business, you know the importance of these railroad regulations.

Mr. Bell can easily, since he is familiar with company routine and procedure, take on the additional duties.

Since he is familiar with company routine and procedure, Mr. Bell can easily take on the additional duties.

The man will be promoted with the highest score on the competitive examination.

The man with the highest score on the competitive examination will be promoted.

Weak Passive Voice

The active voice names the doer of an action, the action, and the object (or receiver) of the action, in that order. The passive voice reverses the order.

The passive voice can be used to advantage when no particular actor is identified, or when it is desirable to emphasize the object of the action rather than its doer. *The desk should be placed by the window,* and, *The conclusion was arrived at scientifically,* are respectable sentences.

The passive voice becomes weak, however, when it is used for action statements that are really active. It is impersonal, it requires more words, and it is likely to be obscure. The following sentences show these defects.

The accounts have been checked by the auditor.

The cash will be delivered by five o'clock by the messenger.

After being on the job a week, the printed instructions can be discarded by the worker.

In the business letter it is easy to fall into the weak passive phrasing, under the mistaken impression that it is more elegant and literary than the active voice. One of the old notions that still persist in letter writing is the theory that personal pronouns should be avoided. The passive voice avoids the use of pronouns, but it produces an indirect, unnatural phrasing. No normal person would use the following statements in an oral discussion or in a telephone conversation, but they are to be found repeatedly in business letters.

Your letter has been received and your request has been given our consideration.

Early action on this matter will be appreciated.

My qualifications for a position in your sales force are being submitted in the hope that they will interest you.

Faulty Parallelism

Balanced items in a sentence, a list, or an outline should be stated in parallel form. Violation of parallelism distorts the appearance of the material by varying the number of words in the different items, and confuses the reader by making him shift the basis of his thinking and understanding.

Since he likes traveling and to meet people, he should do well in sales work.

Recommendations:
There should not be any classrooms near the cafeteria.
Possibility of installing stools at the fountain.

Value to Employees:
Method of showing ability to superior.
Offers a way of letting employees have a voice in company procedure.

Inaccurate Pronoun Reference

Since pronouns are used as substitutes for nouns in order to avoid awkward repetition, the relation between the pronoun and its antecedent should be clear. Two common types of inaccurate reference are inexact reference, in which the pronoun seems to be referring to a noun to which it cannot logically refer; and general reference, or the use of a pronoun to refer to the idea content of a clause rather than to any word in the clause.

Mr. Parsons told his assistant that his desk had been moved.
Mr. Parsons said to his assistant, "Your (or My) desk has been moved."

All sales in the department are made at one counter by four clerks. This is a disadvantage since the area becomes very congested.
All sales in the department are made at one counter by four clerks. This system is a disadvantage since the area becomes very congested.

The report was prepared in two days, which was the result of excellent work by the two men.
The preparation of the report in two days was the result of excellent work by the two men.

Dangling Modifiers

A modifier dangles if it is not attached to the word it modifies or if there is no word in the sentence which it can logically modify. The participial phrase, the infinitive phrase, and the elliptical clause are the types of modifier most likely to be misused in this way.

Having discussed the matter for an hour, a vote was taken.
Having discussed the matter for an hour, the committee voted.

To handle the job successfully some previous experience is necessary.
To handle the job successfully the applicant needs some previous experience.

Although convinced that it is not practicable, the plan will be tried.
Although convinced that the plan is not practicable, we shall try it.

Wrong Case of Pronouns

In English, the nominative case is used in three common constructions: subject of a verb (He and I shall attend the meeting), subjective complement (The winner should have been he), appositive to a word in the nominative case (The winners, Mr. Dee and I, were guests at the banquet). The objective case has two major uses: object of a verb (The manager has promoted him and me), or object of a preposition (This is strictly between you and me). The possessive case usually causes no difficulty except in its use with a gerund, a word that both states action and names something capable of being possessed: (Mr. Cole objected to his trying the experiment). With a little care, any writer can determine the relationship of words in his sentence and thereby determine the case called for. The following sentences are typical examples.

The awards were made to both Bill and (I, me).

The crowd insisted upon (him, his) making a speech.

He is a worker (who, whom) the company can depend upon.

I must admit that he is more capable than (I, me).

(Who, whom) could the culprit have been?

The job will be given to (whoever, whomever) reports first.

It is probable that (we, us) clerks will be asked to work on the holiday.

Inaccurate Subject-Verb Agreement

The elementary rule *A verb agrees with its subject in person and number* is easy to remember, but not easy to apply under the following conditions: (1) when the subject follows rather than precedes the verb, (2) when subject and verb are separated by several words, (3) when the verb is preceded by *there*, which seems to be the subject, (4) when the subject is a pronoun the antecedent of which may be overlooked, (5) when the subject is an indefinite pronoun such as *any, every, each, neither, either, anyone, everybody*, all of which are singular, (6) when the subject is a collective noun, which may be either singular or plural.

Located on the second floor *are* the auditing *department and* the filing *room.*

The *stenographer,* as well as the manager and his assistant, *was* asked to report to the committee.

Behind the factory, as accessory buildings, there *are* a tool *shed and* a carpentry *shop.*

This proposal is one of the most important *results* of the survey *which have* yet been announced.

Neither of the men *is* suited to the work.

The *committee has* reached its decision.

The *committee are* divided in their opinions.

Defects in the Use of Words

Objectionable Words and Phrases

Business writing has inherited from the past an assembly of words and phrases usually referred to as business jargon. Many of them are stilted, trite, unnecessarily elaborate, or inaccurate; many are objectionable only when used in an inappropriate context. These words and phrases are hard to avoid because they come to mind easily, and unless they are examined they are likely to sound impressive and therefore right.

A business writer should build up a sense of discrimination so that he can detect the weakness of such expressions and make substitutions for them. It is never necessary to be completely dull and routine.

The following list contains words and phrases that should be avoided, or used with care and judgment.

ad an abbreviation for *advertisement*, useful in conversation, informal memoranda, and other colloquial use; too casual, however, for many of the contexts in which it often is found.

advise a heavy synonym for *tell*. "I shall advise you when the order is ready for shipment," means only, "I shall tell you," or, "I shall notify you."

along these lines vague and usually unnecessary. In the statement, "We have no information along these lines," the phrase adds nothing.

and etc. meaningless duplication. Should be used only when it really applies and not as a vague gesture at the end of a list, implying that there are many more items in the list but the writer cannot be bothered to name them.

and kindly oblige pompous and empty. If a statement of appreciation is desirable, it should be more convincing and personal.

at an early date a cumbersome way of saying *soon*.

at hand trite and affected, as in the statement, "Your letter is at hand."

at the present time a four-word form of *now*.

attendant circumstances a cliché often stretched to absurd uses. "Let me explain the attendant circumstances of the delay of your order."

at your early convenience an attempt at efficiency, but usually unnecessary and sometimes insulting.

back of, in back of a colloquial form of *behind*.

beg false humility, since little begging is done in business activity. "I beg to call your attention to your overdue account," distorts the relationship between the debtor and the creditor.

can't hardly a double negative and therefore incorrect. "I can't hardly see how we can meet those terms."

case a word with two different primary meanings: "a particular occurrence," and "a box, sheath, or covering." In many trite phrases either meaning is inexact and often ridiculous, e.g., "in case" (*if*), "in many cases" (*often*), "in other cases" (*sometimes*), "in the case of Mr. Kennedy" (*concerning Mr. Kennedy*), "in all cases" (*always*).

character a vague substitute for *quality* or *characteristic*. "The cloth is of a superior character." "The character of his work is improving."

contact a popular and useful word, but only a lazy writer uses it as a substitute for *see, call, have an interview with, trace, ask questions of, telephone to, write a letter to, close a sale with.*

duly unnecessary emphasis and false efficiency, as in "duly received," "duly noted," "duly recorded."

emolument a pompous alternative for *salary* or *fee*.

employ used as both a noun and a verb, but *employment* is the better noun form. "He is employed by Knight and Jones." "He has been in my employment for three years."

enclosed please find trite, impersonal, and inexact. "Enclosed please find my check," suggests that a search is necessary. "I have enclosed a check," states the fact.

extra a poor substitute for *additional*, *very*, or *unusually*, as in "extra thick," "extra luxurious," "extra worker."

happy extravagant and insincere. "I am happy to say that your bill has been corrected."

human an adjective that should not be used as a noun. "This desire is to be found in all humans."

inside of a colloquial form of *within*. "Please attend to this matter inside of three days."

invite a verb that should not be substituted for the noun *invitation*. "The invites to the annual banquet have been issued."

kind of a inexact and clumsy. "He made an unusual kind of an error," is better stated as, "He made an unusual kind of error."

kindly an adverb meaning "in a gracious manner." In phrases like "kindly reply," "kindly sign," "kindly return" no graciousness is expected.

line a badly overworked word in phrases like "the advertising line."

lot, lots loose substitutes for *considerable*, *much*, or *a large amount*.

obtain an elaborate way of saying *get* in simple statements like, "I shall obtain the information for you."

party a trite and unflattering word for identifying a specific individual. In the statement, "Make an appointment with the party," the "party" can better be identified as the *man* or *Mr. Wheeler*.

permit me to say absurd, since one is asking permission to do something that he does without waiting for permission to be granted.

pleased to say a hollow phrase, unless the writer really means it.

plenty a colloquialism when used to mean *very* or *extremely*. "The machine is plenty durable."

real an adjective that should not be used to mean *very* or *really*. "He did real good work on the report."

said unnecessary except in some legal and technical contexts. "Your order has been packed and said order will be shipped tomorrow."

same undesirable and trite in a context that calls for a personal pronoun, usually *it* or *them*. "The matter is being considered, and same will be voted on tomorrow."

secure like *obtain*, an inflated word if *get* states the action adequately.

state a formal way of saying *tell* or *write*, often appearing in elaborate constructions that can be omitted. "I wish to state that I shall call on you some afternoon next week."

take this liberty an unconvincing and routine apology. "I take this liberty because I want you to know that your bill was due last week."

take this opportunity useless padding unless it means something. "I take this opportunity to let you know that the report will be ready next week."

thanking you in advance an overconfident and therefore undiplomatic phrase, since it implies a foregone conclusion.

try and an illogical construction. "I shall try and keep the appointment," means, "I shall try to keep the appointment."

venture a suggestion a timid statement that almost never means anything. "If I may venture a suggestion, I would say that you should increase your advertising budget."

wish to say inaccurate, since it suggests a wishful state that does not exist. "I wish to apply for a position," means, "I am applying for a position."

with regard to a complicated way of saying *about* or *concerning*. "Mr. White talked with him with regard to his promotion."

would say that unnecessary. "In answer to your question, I would say that we have no information on the subject."
writer a weak and impersonal reference to one's self. "In the opinion of the writer, prices will rise during the next six months."

Words Easily Confused

Some pairs and groups of words look alike, sound alike, and have similar meanings; they are therefore easily confused and misused as to meaning, and misspelled. The following words are particularly susceptible to inexact use.

accept a verb meaning "to receive."
except a preposition meaning "with the exclusion of." He *accepted* the proposal. All models *except* A743 have been restocked.
advice a noun meaning "counsel."
advise a verb meaning "to give counsel." He *advised* me to accept the offer, and I believe that his *advice* is sound.
affect a verb meaning "to influence."
effect a verb meaning "to bring about"; also used as a noun meaning "consequence." Mr. Rice's work has been *affected* by his poor health. Increased efficiency was *effected* by the rearrangement of the machines. The *effect* of the rearrangement of the machines was increased efficiency.
already "by or before a particular time."
all ready a phrase made up of an adjective and an adverb. The decision had *already* been made when the new evidence was submitted. The papers are *all ready* to be signed.
altogether "completely."
all together a phrase made up of an adjective and an adverb. It is *altogether* too late to make any changes, because the figures are *all together* with the treasurer.
alumnus masculine singular.
alumni masculine plural.
alumna feminine singular.
alumnae feminine plural.
among "in the midst of, by distribution to."
between "in the interval of time or space that separates." The bonus was divided *among* all members of the department. It is a verbal agreement *between* him and me.
beside "by the side of."
besides "in addition to." The desk stands *beside* the window. Two people, *besides* Tom, are being promoted.
can "to be able."
may "to be allowed." He says that he *can* do the work, if he *may*.
capital "first in importance."
capitol "legislative building." In the *capital* of the state is located the splendid *capitol*.
choose, chose, chosen "to select." For some reason they always *choose* the oldest of a group, of candidates. After he had considered all three possibilities, the consultant *chose* Plan C. Mr. Lee was *chosen* to carry out the assignment.

complement "something that completes that which is incomplete."
compliment "delicate flattery." This report *complements* the study made last year. He was *complimented* on his efficiency.
continuous "uninterrupted."
continual "frequently repeated." The *continuous* roar of traffic is disturbing to the workers. The *continual* objections irritate the chairman.
council "an assembly for consultation."
counsel "consultation, careful judgment." The Executive *Council* will meet at two o'clock. The *counsel* he gave was wise and considered.
educational "pertaining to education."
educative "productive of education." The money was contributed to an *educational* fund. The men found the series of lectures to be *educative*.
farther "more distantly removed in space."
further "more distant in time or degree." The radiator should be moved *farther* along the wall. Let us discuss the matter no *further*.
fewer "smaller in number."
less "smaller in quantity." There were *fewer* accidents last week than we had expected. The committee thinks that there should be *less* emphasis on the negative arguments.
formally "in a formal manner."
formerly "at a former time." He treats his subordinates *formally* under all conditions. The shipping department was *formerly* on the second floor.
healthy "in a sound condition."
healthful "beneficial." The growth of the company has been rapid but *healthy*. The present ventilating system causes *unhealthful* conditions.
hung "suspended."
hanged "suspended by the neck until dead." The display was *hung* in the State Street window. The criminal was *hanged* in the presence of ten witnesses.
ingenuous "frank, innocent."
ingenious "having inventive skill." He is so *ingenuous* that the other men always take advantage of him. He is *ingenious* in finding ways to simplify the routine.
its neuter personal pronoun.
it's contraction of "it is."
later "comparative of late, coming after the usual time."
latter "more recent, opposed to former." They said that they would announce the decision *later*. Mr. Norman and Mr. Van both are capable; the *latter*, however, has more initiative.
lay, laid, laid "to place something." The secretary always *lays* the letters on the left side of the desk. He *laid* the plan before his associates. The new director has *laid* out the work systematically.
lie, lay, lain "to recline, to remain in position." The papers are *lying* on the desk before him. Yesterday the papers *lay* on the top of the file, but they have been mislaid. The samples have *lain* in the sun all day, but they show no signs of fading.
likely "plausible, being such as to make probable."
liable "answerable, exposed to danger."
apt "suitable, ready." He is *likely* to be annoyed if we state the criticism so directly. Under these conditions, only Mr. Hudson is *liable*. The comment he made was *apt*.

most "greatest in number, quantity, amount, or size."
almost "nearly." The report indicates that *most* of the stock is in good condition. *Almost* all of the strikers are satisfied with the compromise.
practical "pertaining to experience or use."
practicable "capable of being done or used." His analysis was reasonable and *practical*. The plan seems *practicable*.
principal "main, chief."
principle "a general truth or settled rule." We considered only the *principal* objections. They discussed the *principles*, but no practical applications.
respectively "singly considered in the order named."
respectfully "in a manner showing esteem." Hall, Henry, and Thompson will go to Worcester, Hartford, and Providence *respectively*. *Respectfully* yours.
rise, rose, risen "to ascend, to move upward." The secretaries always *rise* when Mr. Bruce enters the room. He was confused, but he *rose* to do his best. After the chairman had *risen*, the meeting came to order.
raise, raised, raised "to lift something, to make something ascend." He always *raises* objections when changes are proposed. The company *raised* the salary scale on June 1. The production of the machine has been *raised* considerably by the new appliance.
set, set, set "to place something." The decorator *sets* up a new display each week. He talked convincingly as he *set* up the apparatus. The next meeting has been *set* for Tuesday.
sit, sat, sat "to get into or remain in a sitting position." He *sits* at the third desk on the left. The committee *sat* in session yesterday. After he had *sat* for an hour, thinking, he announced his decision.
specie "coin."
species "variety, kind." The payment must be made in *specie*. It is a new *species* which was discovered and classified only last year.
stationary "fixed."
stationery "writing materials." The relation between these two cost factors has been *stationary* throughout the year. The advertising manager is designing new departmental *stationery*.

Spelling

Know and use the common spelling rules.

When *ei* or *ie* is pronounced as a long *e*, *i* comes before *e*, except after *c;* when *ei* or *ie* is pronounced as a long *a*, *e* comes before *i;* receive, believe, deceive, neighbor, weigh, feint. Exceptions are seize and weird.

After a consonant, *y* changes to *i;* after a vowel, *y* does not change. Check the working of the rule by listing the possible related forms of these words:

hobby	enemy	day
play	valley	monkey
dry	try	hurry
enjoy	sky	gay

Exceptions, keep *y* before *ing;* change *y* to *i* in *laid*, *paid*, *said*.

Words that end in a silent *e* drop the *e* when adding a suffix beginning with a vowel, but keep the *e* when adding a suffix beginning with a consonant. Check the working of the rule by listing the possible related forms of these words:

define	like	grieve
believe	separate	use
hope	prepare	
move	write	

Words of one syllable and words accented on the last syllable, ending in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, double the consonant before adding a suffix beginning with a vowel. Check the working of the rule by listing the possible related forms of these words:

refer	thin	control
occur	begin	defer
stop	enter	admit

The words listed below are commonly misspelled and misused in business writing. Memorize them, and eliminate them as misspelling possibilities. In addition, list the words that you misspell and memorize them correctly before they become misspelling habits.

abbreviate	appearance	canvas	criticize
aberration	appetite	capitalize	crystallize
accelerate	applicable	carrying	curiosity
accidentally	appraisal	cemetery	dealt
accommodate	approaching	changeable	decided
accompanied	appropriate	clarify	definite
accompanying	approximately	coarse	definition
accumulate	arctic	column	demurrage
achievement	argument	committee	dependent
acquainted	arrangement	comparative	descent
acquiesce	article	competition	description
address	ascend	complement	desirable
administration	athletic	compliment	despair
advice	attorney	conceive	desperate
advise	awkward	congratulations	detriment
aggravate	barbarous	connoisseur	development
aggregate	beginning	conquer	different
agreeable	beneficiary	conscientious	disappeared
allegiance	benefited	consignee	disappointed
altogether	believed	consistent	disastrous
aluminum	biennial	continually	distribute
amateur	bookkeeper	controlled	discipline
ambassador	breathe	convenience	diseases
among	brilliant	coolly	disparagement
amount	bulletin	courteous	dissatisfied
apparent	business	criticism	disseminate

dissipation
divided
division
efficiency
eliminated
embarrassed
emphasize
environment
equipped
equivalent
erroneous
especially
exaggerated
exceed
excellent
excitement
exhausted
exhilaration
existence
expedite
experience
explanation
extraordinary
facsimile
familiar
fascinating
fiduciary
finally
foreign
foreword
formally
formerly
fortuitous
forty
fourth
gases
generally
genius
gesticulate
grammar
government
grandeur
grievance
guard
handle
height
hindrance
humorous
hurriedly
hypocrisy

imagination
immediately
incidentally
indelible
independent
indispensable
infringement
inoculate
instantaneous
intelligence
interfere
interpreted
interrupted
iridescent
irreproachable
irresistible
judgment
juvenile
jurisprudence
knowledge
laboratory
laid
leisure
ligaments
lightning
liquefy
livelihood
logarithm
loneliness
losing
maintenance
manual
mathematics
meant
medicinal
medicine
miniature
misspell
momentous
monetary
morale
mysterious
naturally
necessary
necessitate
nevertheless
nickel
niece
ninety
ninth

noisily
noticeable
nowadays
numerical
obstacle
occasionally
occurred
occurrence
officious
omission
omitted
operate
opinion
opportunity
optimistic
original
outrageous
parallel
paralyzed
parliament
particularly
partner
permanent
permissible
perseverance
persistent
personal
personnel
persuade
phenomenon
physically
possess
practically
preceding
preferred
prejudice
preparations
principal
principle
privilege
probably
procedure
proceed
professional
professor
prominent
promissory
promulgate
propeller
psychology

publicize
pursue
qualitative
quantity
questionnaire
quiet
quite
quitting
quizzes
rarefy
recalcitrant
received
recognize
recommend
recriminatory
referred
relieve
religious
remembrance
repetition
resistance
resource
restaurant
rhythm
ridiculous
sacrifice
safety
satisfactorily
scarcely
schedule
secretary
seize
separate
sergeant
severely
shining
similar
sincerely
skepticism
smooths
sophomore
specialization
specimen
statistics
statutory
stomach
strenuously
stretched
studying
subpoena

subsidiary
substantiate
succeed
successful
sufferance
superintendent
supersede
suppress
surely
surprise
syndicalism
syndicate
synonym
systematize
temperament
tragedy
transferred
transgressor
tremendous
truly
twelfth
undoubtedly
unkempt
unnecessary
unnumbered
usually
valuable
varieties
vegetable
vengeance
venue
verbatim
veterinary
vigorous
villain
vitiate
vituperative
warehouse
wearisome
weather
whether
whole
wholly
worrying
writing
zealous

Punctuation

Together with capital letters and paragraph indentations, marks of punctuation help to make clear the meaning of what we write and simplify the process of reading. If written material is incompletely punctuated, or not punctuated at all, the reader must edit and punctuate as he goes along.

Each mark of punctuation has a conventional use, established by general practice. Its appearance on the page therefore is a signal to the reader. If he sees a period at the end of a series of words, for example, he knows that the writer has completed a statement. In the same way, each mark of punctuation is an arbitrary, commonly understood symbol.

Marks of punctuation label conditions, relationships, and implications in the material being written. Quotation marks indicate that the enclosed material was said by a particular person. Two commas may be used to set off supplementary, incidental comments within a sentence. Thus the labels, in all of their uses, build up into a system that is understood and used by all literate persons.

For two sound reasons the business writer should use punctuation accurately and effectively. Well-punctuated material is easy to read and to understand. Because most business writing is done largely to convey facts and ideas, it should be punctuated up to the point of best readability. Punctuation beyond that point clutters up the page and does more harm than good, since it distracts the reader's attention from the content of the page. Well-punctuated material reflects the intelligence, knowledge, and care of the writer. Insufficient or inaccurate punctuation suggests carelessness or lack of training. Sound punctuation, on the other hand, contributes to the total impression that the piece of writing makes on the reader.

The following major uses of marks of punctuation constitute the system that every business writer should know and use.

Principal Uses of the Comma

To separate items in a series or list:

They exhibited filing cabinets, typewriters, adding machines, and desks.

With slow, easy, competent movements, he demonstrated the efficiency of the new machine.

To separate independent clauses connected by the coordinate conjunctions *and, or, but, for, nor* (unless the clauses are short):

We have called your attention to this matter before, but you have not replied to our inquiries.

Mr. Bell will preside and Mr. Spear will act as secretary.

To separate an introductory subordinate clause from the rest of the sentence:

As the audience assembled, Tom and Henry checked the attendance.

To set off an appositive:

Mr. Wheeler, the president, appeared unannounced at the meeting.

To set off a transitional word or phrase:

It seems, therefore, that we should reconsider the plan.

To set off a nonrestrictive clause (one that describes but does not identify):

The sales manager, who has been ill for the past three weeks, is now back on the job.

Note that a restrictive clause is *not* set off by commas:

Any member who pays his dues regularly will remain in good standing.

Principal Uses of the Semicolon

To separate independent clauses that are joined by a conjunctive adverb (e.g., therefore, moreover, hence, then) or a connective phrase (e.g., in the second place, on the other hand, in fact):

This offer is open only until March 1; therefore we urge you to make your decision within the next week.

Mr. Maguire is a conscientious supervisor; in fact, he is unpopular because he expects so much of his subordinates.

To separate independent clauses that are not joined by any word or phrase:

The new model is a great improvement over previous models; it is also less expensive than any competing article.

To separate independent clauses connected by a coordinate conjunction (and, or, but, for, nor) if the clauses are long, or if they contain internal punctuation:

Peter, Bob, and Stephen will take the day off; but Dick, who has just returned from his vacation, will be in the office until noon.

To separate items in a complicated list:

The officers are Mr. Adams, president; Mr. Blair, vice-president; Mr. Coney, secretary; Mr. Dalrymple, treasurer; and Mr. Egan, Council representative.

He demonstrated Model H2, which the committee liked best; H1, now outdated; and G23, a small machine and therefore unsuited to our current needs.

Principal Uses of the Colon

To follow the salutation of a business letter:

Gentlemen:

Dear Mr. Flynn:

To introduce a word, explanation, or list which is preceded by a complete statement:

One thing we will not do: compromise.

The committee consists of the following men: Mr. Abbott, Mr. Blaisdell, and Mr. Carman.

He made three announcements: the next meeting will be held on Friday, Maguire will report on overhead costs, and items of business not completed today will be reconsidered.

We arrived at one decision: that the union vote should be postponed for a month.

Principal Uses of Quotation Marks

To enclose a direct quotation; that is, the exact words of a speaker or another writer:

"The difficulty," said Mr. Walther, "is that we cannot check the hidden costs."

To enclose the title of an article in a magazine or newspaper:

"Recent Trends in Advertising," which appeared in the January issue of *American Advertising*, is being reprinted for general distribution.

To designate words and letters that are referred to as words and letters in typewritten or handwritten material:

The new secretary always leaves out one "m" when she writes "recommend."

Principal Uses of the Hyphen

To join parts of a compound noun or adjective:

The secretary-treasurer recommended an analysis of the top-heavy administration of the company.

To join parts of numerals and fractions:

Seven three-inch planks and one hundred feet of three-quarter-inch boards constitute two-thirds of the necessary materials.

To indicate an uncompleted word at the end of a line (words should be broken between syllables, e.g., consti-tute; and between double consonants, e.g., com-mission).

Principal Uses of the Apostrophe

To stand for omitted letters in contractions:

We can't settle the matter if he doesn't answer before ten o'clock tomorrow.

To form the possessive case of nouns and indefinite pronouns:

Mrs. Burns' salary is higher than her husband's.

Someone's typewriter was left uncovered last night.

To form the plural of letters, figures, and words:

He writes *a's* like *o's* and 9*'s* like 7*'s*, and most of his *and's* are merely wavy lines.

Principal Uses of Italics

To indicate the title of a book, magazine, newspaper, ship, or musical composition (in handwritten and typewritten material italics are represented by underlining):

We gave him a copy of *The Education of Henry Adams* when he sailed on the *Arcadia*.

To designate words and letters that are referred to as words and letters (in printed material):

The two words *its* and *it's* are commonly confused.

Principal Uses of the Dash

To set off and emphasize a parenthetical element that is an independent grammatical unit:

At the next meeting—please make a note of the date—we shall discuss the proposed wage increase.

To emphasize a summarizing word or phrase at the end of a statement:

The advantages of the plan can be expressed in one word—economy.

Principal Use of Parentheses

To enclose references:

His most recent discussion ("Limited Control" in *The Manager*, July, 1946) shows some significant changes in his thinking.

The reasons for this decision (see report of last year) still are sound.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

A bibliography is an accurate and detailed statement of sources of material that have been used *directly* in the preparation of written work. It is a necessary part of any piece of writing in the preparation of which the writer has consulted authorities and references.

The question of what constitutes secondhand material is one that can be answered in various ways. Strictly, in any writing process, any fact, idea, theory, or statement is secondhand if it is not original with the writer. It is apparent, however, that most of the statements we make are not original. Moreover, most of them are a part of our common knowledge, and cannot be traced back to their originator. If we say that red is one of the primary colors, for example, we are stating a fact that we did not determine for ourselves; but it would be difficult and useless to try to determine who first announced the fact, and to give him credit. In all writing projects, therefore, the only practical and realistic way of deciding what is secondhand material is the method of work in the writing process. If the writer consults books, magazines, pamphlets, and people, they are his sources, the data he gets from them is secondhand as he uses it, and he should acknowledge his indebtedness. But if he uses data that he got from such sources in the

past and that is now a part of his general working knowledge, it is not the kind of secondhand material that should be acknowledged. For example, if in 1940 a writer learned a principle of economics in a course or from an article or textbook, and if in 1942 he knows the principle well enough to state it and use it in a piece of writing he is doing, that principle is a part of his own knowledge. But if he takes the statement of the principle from printed material that he reads in the process of doing his piece of writing, or if he consults the economics instructor to verify the way in which the principle should be stated, then the principle becomes secondhand material. This working distinction is important, since it establishes the line beyond which sources should be stated accurately and carefully.

The statement of sources, or the bibliography, has three specific values:

1. It indicates the sources used and thereby indicates that the treatment of the subject is not from the writer's own mind and knowledge entirely, but that he has provided himself with appropriate background and support, and has consulted the appropriate authorities. The bibliography therefore tends to reflect the care and workmanship of the writer, and the reliability of his work.

2. It suggests additional material on the same subject. Not always, of course, does the reader want to learn more about the subject presented, but always there is the possibility that he will want to find and read one book or magazine referred to or quoted from. The bibliography provides the reader with the data necessary for locating the material.

3. It acknowledges the indebtedness of the writer to the authorities he used. The obvious advantage here is that the writer states the conditions under which he worked, and admits that his own material is supplemented by the material created by other individuals. Thereby he prevents any suggestion of misrepresentation, falsification, or plagiarism.

Placed at the end of the report, paper, or thesis, the bibliography may be in any one of several forms. The important mechanical requirements are that each item of material be completely identified, and that the whole bibliography be so set up that it is easy for the reader to get the spread and extent of material, and to locate any item.

In technical reports it is frequently a service to the reader to add an editorial comment on each item; that is, a phrase or sentence in parentheses stating the reporter's opinion of the extent, point of view, or reliability of the reference item.

Another useful device is the classification or grouping of the items,

so that the bibliography is departmentalized much as the report itself is. For example, a long survey report on one of the departments of the federal government might be made up of three major sections: history and development, organization and functions, and relation to other departments. If reference material is used in connection with all three major sections, the bibliography could be sectioned into three corresponding parts, with subheadings.

The bibliography given here illustrates a satisfactory and common form. Notice particularly the alphabetical listing of items, the data given on different kinds of items, and the arrangement of punctuation. The illustration also indicates the common general sources of secondhand material: books; magazine articles; reports, bulletins, and pamphlets; newspapers; oral material. The last source is especially important to keep in mind. An investigator may get his most valuable data from academic lectures, public speeches, radio addresses, and interviews. In his writing he is likely to use that data without realizing that it is as much the property of the original user as though it had been printed in a book or magazine.

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FOOTNOTES

Footnotes are used: (1) to add supplementary data in the form of comment, fact, translation, definition of term, or quotation; (2) to make specific reference to secondhand material.

Footnotes should be avoided whenever possible. Used in excess, they become one of the curses of technical and scholarly writing, and may produce the strange page that consists of a quarter of a page of text and three-quarters of a page of footnotes. Even used in moderation, footnotes complicate the page layout, are likely to distract the reader's attention from more important page content, and frequently are not so vital and interesting to the reader as the writer believes them to be.

Footnotes can be avoided by two sound methods, both of which

require a certain amount of planning and ingenuity. One method is to work the necessary footnote content into the text of the page. Often a technical term can best be defined in parentheses immediately after the term itself; a supplementary explanation can be worked into the primary explanation; a quotation can be identified by an introductory phrase. The second method is to place all footnote material in other parts of the report. Some of it may appear in the introduction; the rest can be set up in an appendix in the form of a glossary or other reference section, and referred to (sometimes by page designation) in the body of the report. Often, of course, neither method will serve the purpose of the report, the writer, and the reader; then footnotes should be used.

Explanatory footnotes should be concise. It is especially important that they really explain, or give supplementary data, and not leave the item as obscure as it would have been without a footnote.

Reference footnotes should be used to label both quoted material (direct quotations from the writing and speaking of other persons) and cited material (indirect quotations, summaries, and paraphrasings of source material). Usually both quoted and cited material is at least partially labeled in the body of the page by an introductory and identifying phrase. The footnote is useful in supplementing or replacing that information.

As the name implies, footnotes usually appear at the bottom of the page. They should be kept above the bottom margin and separated from the text of the page by a line that runs across the whole page. A symbol should be used either immediately after the item to be footnoted, or at the end of the sentence in which the item occurs. If only one footnote appears on a page, an asterisk or other mechanical symbol can be used, slightly above the line of type. If several footnotes are used per page, they should be numbered. The numbers can start with *1* on each page, or the footnotes can be numbered consecutively throughout the report.

The other possibility of position for footnotes is in the text page, immediately below the item referred to. The advantage of this position is that it makes a quick and easy transition from one part of the reference to the other. The disadvantage is that it breaks up the page, and unless the note is really important to the reader, it is likely to look like an intrusion on the page. Frequently recommended * is a form well adapted to many kinds of technical report in which it is desirable to give easy and immediate note reference.

* Oliver, *Technical Exposition*, p. 111.

The examples given below show some of the common combinations of text identification and footnote. Other possibilities are worked out with the particular material being used.

Mr. Davis in his recent article, "Two Banks," says, "..... "[1]

The article "Two Banks" emphasized the fact that .....[2]

It is the opinion of Mr. George that .....[3]

The condition can best be understood through an examination of the following factors: .....[4]

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[1] Davis, *Banker's Journal*, p. 56.

[2] Ibid., p. 58.

[3] Cook, *Trends in Banking*, Chap. 5.

[4] Frank, Interview.

PROBLEMS

1. Identify the phrases and clauses in the following sentences, and determine the use and grammatical function of each:

   (a) Whenever anyone who is unfamiliar with the work can gain an understanding of it in a few minutes, the observer can conclude that the work is not difficult.

   (b) The president called to his office a group of men who were known to be troublemakers; after a short conference, however, he found that they were the most loyal workers in the organization.

   (c) On the top of the desk lay two pamphlets that the secretary decided were useless; she therefore threw them into the wastebasket.

2. Choose four paragraphs from a business textbook or from an article in a business magazine. Examine the paragraphs to determine: (a) the topic idea of the paragraph; (b) the topic sentence, if the topic idea is stated in a single sentence; (c) the method or combination of methods by which the topic idea is developed.

3. Separate the following words into root word, prefix, and suffix. Determine the meaning of each part of the word.

misdemeanor	irreversibility
incandescent	polydemonism
Predestinarianism	supernaturalism
misappropriation	hyperparasitism
unaccountability	interloper

4. Read carefully a piece of business writing—a report, memorandum, or magazine article. Analyze the style by applying the principles and devices given in this chapter. Determine what qualities and character-

istics of the writer can safely be inferred from the piece of writing. Determine how the style of the writer contributes to the total effect of the written material.

5. Revise and restate the sentences given below, keeping in mind the principles and errors discussed under *Defects in Construction.*

(a) By working carefully stupid errors can be avoided.
(b) He rushed out of the office without speaking, which as he later found was a great mistake.
(c) It had stopped raining. However, the sky was still cloudy.
(d) I doubt that either Roger or his associate have enough money to close the deal.
(e) The real cause of all the accidents that have recently occurred are that the streets have been dangerously slippery.
(f) Mr. Bunker is the president of the company but he came to work here twenty-seven years ago as a mere errand boy, but he advanced steadily because of his industry and intelligence which justified promotion, until the former president retired because of old age and Mr. Bunker was the logical choice of the directors, and so he was elected by them.
(g) You should not be reticent about receiving assistance from whomever offers it to you.
(h) Each officer of the firm keeps to their own job and never knows anything outside of their own department.
(i) Chief among the people who are being considered there is Bill Robinson and Tom Henry.
(j) The office boy would delight in getting all the dust cloths, going to the window nearest my desk, and shake them.
(k) I wonder who they meant by that unkind remark.
(l) Flying at a height of three thousand feet, the plant looked like a paper village.
(m) In this machine there is a bearing that must be kept well lubricated and a cone that must be kept dry.
(n) Be sure and tell the secret to whomever happens to come along.
(o) A freshman with three upperclassmen were found in the center of the group, arguing and declaiming violently.
(p) It is an accepted procedure, being tested by several authorities.
(q) That was the most exciting event in my career, and it will never be forgotten.
(r) Turning the corner, the truck was seen parked at the curb.
(s) A new set of rules have been put into effect for the benefit of all employees who have, in the past three months, been added to the department.
(t) His work is consistently satisfactory. While his character leaves much to be desired.

(u) Brown told Henderson that he would do something drastic if he missed the 8:05 train again.
(v) The proportion of water in the paper pulp is so large that it must be passed through the drying machine again.
(w) The opposite port is then opened, which permits the gas to escape.
(x) By listening to the beat of the metronome the rhythm can be maintained better than it could be without it.
(y) He was undecided as to who the letter should be addressed to.

6. Revise the sentences given below to eliminate trite words and phrases, and to make the statements more personal and natural.

(a) The writer is happy to state that an investigation will be instituted some time during the current month.
(b) With regard to the delay in your order we would say that every effort is being made to facilitate same.
(c) Thanking you for your assistance, I wish to say that we shall make every effort to try and reciprocate the favor at some future date.
(d) Permit me to say that the data in this report was secured under extremely adverse circumstances.
(e) The character of the analysis has been duly examined and has been found to be somewhat superficial.
(f) I am happy to say that your invite has been received.
(g) Kindly consider this proposition and render a decision inside of the current week.
(h) Please contact the speaker in advance and ascertain his attitude with regard to emolument.
(i) I take this opportunity to observe that although the department has enjoyed a period of very satisfactory productivity, the attitude of the workers is not real good.
(j) He has a difficult kind of a personality but because he is well versed in the accounting line every consideration is being given to his application for the position.

7. In each of the following sentences decide which of the two words in parentheses should be used.

(a) He (most, almost) always calls the office when he is delayed.
(b) The analysis showed that for at least six months the revised schedule should be followed as a (practical, practicable) solution to the problem.
(c) After the matter had been (laid, lain) before them, they saw that immediate action was necessary.
(d) Fabrics are the (principal, principle) product of the company.
(e) The evidence indicates that prices are (liable, likely) to rise within the next three months.

(f) His customers have a protective feeling toward him because everything he says shows how (ingenious, ingenuous) he is.
(g) Bill's (continuous, continual) efforts to disparage the company management will cause trouble.
(h) The applicant says that the reason for his change is that he does not find the local climate (healthy, healthful).
(i) Each (alumnus, alumna) was urged to bring a husband or other male guest to the reunion.
(j) The (affect, effect) of the announcement was evident in the faces of the audience.

8. Insert all *necessary* punctuation in the following sentences.

(a) I wish he said that someone would explain why she asked Will Bill the janitor be on duty tonight
(b) After our guests had gone home seemed quiet and restful
(c) Answer this question snapped the supervisor did you or did you not turn off the current
(d) How long may I ask has he been doing this job in such a careless indifferent way
(e) Rain fell steadily soon water was seeping into the basement
(f) That is an unusual conclusion to say the least in fact I do not see how you arrived at it
(g) I have no grudge against you however I do not agree with you
(h) There was but one answer someone had misplaced the papers
(i) The special committee consisted of the following men Mr Black chairman Mr Henry secretary and Mr Flanagan who has had the advantage of much experience in similar work
(j) The craft was frail and unsteady winds often put the sailors off their course
(k) At every mention of the word work his reaction is the same he actually turns pale
(l) The factory was the scene of much confused activity it was at that time still a rough crude unorganized unit in the companys development
(m) Youll need four two inch pipes four two inch planks and four seven eighths inch boards now get started and finish the job by three thirty
(n) The principal reason for the managers refusal seems to be this they are afraid that there will be other demands later
(o) Our president Mr Walter who is a man of sound judgment says that business will improve
(p) The policy to which we adhere rigidly is this a complaint is adjusted even though the customer is at fault
(q) The letter was curious the sheet was blank except for Dear Sir and Yours respectfully

(r) He sat down as if for an hours work five minutes later he was wandering around the office

(s) Angrily he gathered up the papers then turning he rushed from the room

(t) These reasons no others are apparent please explain the situation

(u) He was a well educated man but at the age of forty seven he had not won a promotion

(v) The phrase most astounding development of the century is a little extreme isnt it

(w) The factory a large low weather beaten building was burned in its owners absence

(x) After he had finished dictating the secretary asked May I have the afternoon off

(y) I have made this decision I shall go tomorrow or not at all

9. Prepare a bibliography of at least ten items on a business subject of current interest. Make sure that the references are assorted: some books, some magazine articles, some newspaper material, some oral material. Assume that the bibliography is to be used at the end of a written discussion.

CHAPTER 3

The Business Letter

The business letter illustrates the two reasons why written communication plays such an important part in business activity. In general, the business letter is used (1) when a person-to-person, oral method of conveying the message would be inefficient or costly; and (2) when the nature of the material makes writing the effective method of presentation.

The letter, like any other form of written communication, has some limitations and deficiencies. In the first place, it always is somewhat impersonal. Unless the mechanical process is expert, the letter which is duplicated and sent out by the score or the hundred looks mechanical, and conveys the impression of mass production. Even a letter that is carefully planned, stated, and typed lacks much of the personal appeal and effect of an interview or a conversation.

Another limitation is the fact that the letter must be self-sufficient. It must convey a message without the aid of personal qualities of appearance, voice inflection, and gestures, all of which are important in oral communication. Furthermore, the letter offers no possibilities of adaptation to the reader's mood and receptivity; it cannot add, supplement, modify, and explain, as a speaker can do in oral discussion.

Competition, moreover, has become stiffer in the business-letter field than in that of the interview. Two generations ago the arrival of a letter was an important event. The receiver was pleased, interested, and curious. Now, almost everyone is showered with mail. Every day he receives circulars, letters, pamphlets, and other kinds of mail. Consequently, the letter that really attracts attention and arouses interest is superior, because it stands out among others attempting to accomplish the same purpose.

On the other hand, the letter has some great advantages. Letters are relatively inexpensive. With the improvement of secretarial techniques and mechanical methods for reproducing letters, unit production cost has decreased. It is now possible to cover extensive mailing

lists at a reasonable cost. Frequently it is sound business practice to send out a great many letters, even though the returns may be small in number.

Another advantage is the fact that a letter can go where a person cannot go. Since it travels inexpensively, it can go to scattered and inaccessible places. In addition, it often has a better chance of getting to the receiver than a person would have. The unapproachable individual who refuses to see callers is likely to give his mail careful attention.

A third advantage of the business letter is that it can be adapted to any business situation. Anything that can be put into words can be written. Consequently, the business letter, if properly handled, can accomplish any of the ordinary business functions of bill collection, sales, credit relations, adjustment, and inquiry. Although often these functions can be accomplished better by oral, personal methods, it is also true that sometimes they can be accomplished better by written communication.

Because the letter is important in business, it has been subjected to increasing study and analysis in recent years. There are, therefore, numerous complete and authoritative texts on the subject. The purpose of the following material is not to attempt to duplicate any of those discussions, but to give the essentials of business letter form and layout; and to give information on some common types of business letters for the writing of which the individual needs not only a knowledge of business and the business letter, but also a set of habits and attitudes based on good manners and sound business ethics.

BUSINESS LETTER FORM

The complete business letter contains six parts.

The *heading* identifies the place from which the letter was written, and the date on which it was written. If a printed letterhead is used, the added heading consists of the date line only.

The *inside address* identifies the receiver of the letter and his address, and usually is the same as that which appears on the outside of the envelope.

The *salutation* is a greeting line. Most commonly used are *Gentlemen* with a company or plural inside address, and *Dear Sir* or *Dear Mr. Henderson* with a personal or singular inside address. *Dear Sir* should be used when there is an element of respect or formality in the relationship between the writer and the reader. *Dear Mr. Henderson* has the advantage of being personal and individual; it resembles the greeting,

"Good morning, Mr. Henderson," which the writer would use if he approached the reader in person rather than by letter.

The *body* of the letter is the content, or message.

The *closing phrase* is a conventional and rather meaningless element used only to bridge the gap between the content of the letter and the writer's signature. In routine business correspondence, *Yours truly, Yours very truly,* and *Very truly yours,* may be used. *Sincerely yours, Cordially yours, Respectfully yours,* and similar phrases still have some literal meaning and therefore should be reserved for use where they apply; that is, when there actually is an element of sincerity, cordiality, or respect in the relationship between the writer and the reader. One of the dubious practices of second-rate letter writing is that of beginning a thoroughly routine, unimportant letter with the salutation *Dear Friend,* and ending with *Cordially yours,* or a similar phrase.

Some companies develop, or create spontaneously, special closing phrases for their own use. A trucking and moving company, for example, has written letters for some years with the ending phrase *Transportingly yours.*

The *signature* is the identification of the writer of the letter. It testifies to the fact that the person whose name appears actually wrote the letter and gave it his personal attention. *Dictated but not read,* is no longer used by any self-respecting letter writer.

The form of the signature, the use of title, and the use of company name depend on local company practices. One common and desirable form, however, is the combination of typed and handwritten signature; the former is sure to be legible, and the latter is personal and individual. Another highly desirable practice is the signing of the letter by the dictator rather than by the secretary. There is considerable supporting argument to the attitude that if the reader is important enough to receive a letter, he is important enough to receive a personally signed letter. Except in an emergency, as in the situation when the dictator leaves town and the secretary completes letters that must be sent out immediately, the dictator's name in longhand with the secretary's initials under it is a reflection of lack of consideration and a mistaken conception of efficiency.

The following letters demonstrate some of the commonly used forms of the business letter. They also establish a standard practice that can be modified and adapted to meet the demands of local practices that the letter writer may encounter. Particularly in large companies, he will find those practices, both in standards and in details, summarized in a stenographic handbook or a correspondence style book.

Notice the blocked lines of the heading and inside address, the open punctuation, the use of abbreviations only to make symmetrical lines.

72 Foster Street
Worcester 6, Mass.
May 21, 1946

Mr. John R. Henderson
432 Main Street
Bangor, Maine

Dear Mr. Henderson:

We have considered carefully your letter of the ninth asking us to replace the window sashes you bought from us, because they are warped.

We presume you realize that window sashes are made from wood that has not been thoroughly dried because it is impossible to get kiln-dried lumber any more. When the window sashes are glazed, hung, and painted, the wood very naturally warps when the sun strikes it, and causes a great deal of grief. Any contractor ought to know that new window sashes ought to be allowed to dry before they are painted.

We are very sorry that you had this difficulty with window sashes you purchased from us. If you will bring the windows in, we will replace the window sashes, and put the glass in the new ones.

Yours very truly,

Thomas L. Bunker

Illustration 1

Notice the blocked paragraphs. With this style, paragraph breaks must be shown by more space between paragraphs than between lines within paragraphs. Letters usually are single spaced, but a very short letter which would look lost on the page may be double spaced.

Notice also the omission of the comma after the closing phrase. This practice is approved by some authorities on the reasoning that the closing phrase and the signature are two separate elements and need not be separated by punctuation.

422 Commonwealth Avenue
Boston 11, Massachusetts
24 December 1945

Bee and Bee Company
578 West Boulevard
Topeka, Kansas

Gentlemen:

We regret very much to say, in response to your letter of 20 December requesting a description of our accounting system, that our policy does not permit us to supply this information.

If there is any other way in which we can be of help to you, please do not hesitate to write to us.

Yours very truly

Bruce F. Winslow
Vice-President

Illustration 2

This illustration shows the use of the *Attention* line. It should be used only when a letter to a large company should go as efficiently as possible to an individual official whose name the writer does not know. If the individual's name is known, it should be used as the first line of the inside address and of the envelope address.

Notice that the salutation is *Gentlemen*. The letter is addressed to the company, even though it is directed to the attention of one person within the company.

The reverse indentation of paragraphs is a form used by some companies, but it is not widely used because it increases the typist's work.

45 Elm Street
Concord, N. H.
May 17, 1946

Jones and Pierce Co.
89 Broad Street
Fall River 8, Mass.

Gentlemen:

Attention: Sales Manager

Thank you for your order for ten Master Postal Scales to be shipped to your Newark office.

As it happens, the manufacture of that particular scale was discontinued late last fall. We have not a single one in stock.

We now carry the Postal Savings Scale, which you will find illustrated and briefly described on the enclosed sheet. The price of this scale is only seven cents more than that of the Master. We have been using three of these scales in our own office for the last ten months and have found them to be highly accurate.

May we fill your order by sending you ten Postal Savings Scales?

Yours very truly,

Charles J. John

Illustration 8

THE LETTER OF APPLICATION

The letter of application may be either solicited or unsolicited. The solicited letter is written in answer to an advertisement; the unsolicited letter is written at the writer's initiative, to apply for work with a company or kind of company in which he is interested, to apply for a position he has heard about from a friend or an employee in the company, or to carry out some similar desire of the writer.

The Solicited Letter

The solicited letter is the easier of the two to write. In the first place, the advertisement sets up the specifications for the job, and the writer has only to write into a letter the information about himself that meets those specifications. The work of editing and selecting the possible material is already done for him. Composition of the letter follows the blueprint, which is the advertisement.

In the second place, the solicited letter goes to a receptive reader. Any application letter is a sales letter, since it is an effort to demonstrate that education, experience, and ability are worth a salary. The employer is the buyer; the applicant is the seller. If an employer inserts an advertisement in a newspaper or trade journal, he indicates thereby that he is in the market for an employee, and that he will receive with attention and interest any replies to the advertisement. Consequently, the letter writer need not interest the employer in the idea of employing someone; he must only interest him in employing a particular person—the writer.

It does not follow, of course, that the solicited letter is easy to write. The handicap that offsets the advantages discussed above is that this letter is in a competition. If the job possibility is at all attractive the replies are likely to be numerous, and any applicant's letter is likely to arrive in the same mail with five or fifty other replies to the advertisement. The really good solicited letter, therefore, is one that stands out from the rest and somehow indicates that the writer is an individual who should be investigated further.

To make use of the advantages and to overcome the handicap of the solicited application letter, the following considerations should be adapted to the specific case.

1. Answer the advertisement. Make sure that the letter meets every qualification listed in the advertisement. If the applicant cannot meet some qualification of age, experience, ability to travel, or similar item, he should admit the limitation but balance the admission with data about some other—and if possible compensating—item.

Limit the letter content to that called for by the advertisement. If there is additional qualification material that could be used, do not use it unless there seems to be some very good reason for doing so.

2. Reproduce the emphasis of the advertisement. Decide which qualification or group of qualifications is most important from the employer's point of view. Frequently this emphasis is indicated by the way in which the advertisement is stated. Sometimes it must be inferred from the nature of the job, the kind of company, the geographic location of the company, or some similar factor. Having determined the most important items, the applicant should devote more details and space to those, and less to the qualifications that seem secondary.

3. Begin the letter in an individual way. The first statement in the letter is the first impression, similar to the impression made at the beginning of an interview. In any letter, and particularly in a competitive letter, the first statement should be as individual as possible. The form that the individuality takes varies considerably.

The worst possible beginning is a sentence like, *I saw your advertisement in "The New York Times," and am applying for the position advertised.* Such a sentence only classifies the letter as one of application, and since it could equally well be written by any one of hundreds of applicants, it has absolutely no individuality.

Better possibilities are these (*a*) the reason why the advertisement appealed to the writer, (*b*) the reason why the writer is applying, (*c*) the statement of a major qualification, or unusual item of experience, education, or ability.

It is true that the letter should identify itself as a letter of application, and usually true that the writer should name the publication in which he saw the advertisement. That drab, mechanical data should be subordinated to more positive and individual information, however; the letter should begin with a statement that really says something.

4. Make the rest of the letter individual. There is no simple formula for accomplishing this result. The individuality of the letter is a composite of style; selection, statement, and emphasis of content; and any originality that can be injected without making the result eccentric.

The Unsolicited Letter

Since the applicant takes the initiative in writing the unsolicited application letter, he must do a complete selling job. He must attract the employer's attention, interest him in the employment idea, and convince him that the writer is desirable as an employee. Therefore this letter usually is longer and more fully developed than is the solicited letter; it also requires more planning and preparatory thinking.

It is important to find out as much as possible about (*a*) the job or kind of work being applied for, (*b*) the company to which the application is to go, and (*c*) the man to whom the letter is to be addressed, or who is likely to read the letter if it is addressed to the company. These three points are important because on them depend the selection, statement, and emphasis of the content of the letter. The applicant should find out the standards, requirements, policies, and working conditions of the company. He should find out the organization and management of the department of which he wants to be a member, and how the work he wants to do is done in that particular department. If possible, he should write his letter to an individual and take into account that individual's likes and dislikes, position and reputation, career and background, in so far as they can be determined by the applicant.

In planning and writing the letter, the applicant should remember that content and form are of major importance.

Content

There is no one set of facts that always should be used in the unsolicited letter, nor is there one standard organization and arrangement of the facts. Selection and use of material depend on the applicant, the data about himself that are available, and on whatever facts the applicant can find out about the situation into which his letter will go.

The following organization is therefore only a general one.

Identification of letter and writer. The unsolicited letter, like the solicited letter, should start by saying something individual and interesting. The kind of beginning to avoid is, *I wish to apply for a position in your sales department.*

Two better possibilities are the question opening and the reason opening. Either form throws the emphasis on information, and subordinates the mere identification of the letter. If a reason is used, it must be appealing to the reader. *I am applying for a position because I need work*, or, *because I want to advance in my profession*, or, *because I believe that your company will give me a chance to show my real ability*, all are weak starts, since the reasons, sound and important from the writer's point of view, are not important to the reader. An employer is not primarily a philanthropist; he hires men, not to provide them with opportunities, but to provide himself with the best employees possible.

Another possible opening is the use of a "prestige" name; that is, a name that means something to and carries some weight with the employer. The limitation of this device is, of course, that it cannot often

be used, and that it is likely to create the impression that the writer is depending on his connections rather than on his own ability.

The following opening sentences show good emphasis and different combinations of facts and ideas:

Are you interested in considering a young man with unusual sales experience?

Will you consider my qualifications and decide whether or not I am suited to your organization?

Have you an opening in your company for a young man who believes that he has something to offer?

Because I have had complete and thorough training in accounting, I am applying for a position in your accounting department.

Because I believe that I would be of value to your company, I ask that you give the following information your attention.

Mr. Robert G. Henderson suggested that you may be interested in my qualifications.

Experience. Even the individual applying for his first full-time position has considerable experience in his background. It may be only paper routes, odd jobs, and part-time work, but it is experience in which he has had to demonstrate his working ability. In writing the letter of application, the worker should apply to this body of information two principles.

In the first place, *he should be selective*. That is, he should not attempt to list all of the major and minor items of working experience in his career. Instead he should tell the employer about experience that is similar to the work being applied for; if he is applying for sales work, the fact that he has been a part-time clerk in a grocery store obviously is more important than the fact that he has worked in a road construction crew. Further, he should mention working experience that has called for the same qualities and abilities that are demanded by the work being applied for, such as trustworthiness, accuracy, promptness, initiative, and imagination. It is important that the letter not be cluttered up with information that does not interest the reader; it is equally important that the letter should contain all relevant experience information that is convincing.

In the second place, *the writer should be specific, exact, and detailed.* Having decided what items of working experience are important from the point of view of the employer, the applicant should amplify them. It is not enough to say, *I worked for two years for the Blank and Blank Company;* such a statement tells nothing and may stand for important or unimportant work. *I have worked in a shipping room,* states no informative details of the work done and the responsibility involved.

Experience, then, should be used in the letter as a selling point. It should be selected and then described adequately.

Education. The same principles of selection and development apply to the discussion of education. It is not necessary to run through the full account of one's educational career from first grade to the present time; but it is important to use fully the items of that career that were educational preparation for the job being applied for.

A statement like, *I attended Mars College,* is too general; it may refer to a brilliant course or a two months' scandal. Similarly, *I majored in marketing,* tells little; the employer wants to know what courses and kinds of courses constitute a marketing major in the college attended by the applicant.

If the letter writer is a college student or alumnus, usually the employer is interested only in college education. High school or preparatory school need not be mentioned unless for some special reason it is important; otherwise it can be taken for granted. The discussion of education, therefore, should consist of a listing of pertinent courses and subjects, and an indication of their value as preparation for actual work.

Personal data. Personal data consist of such information as race, religion, clubs and societies, hobbies and distinctions, size, weight, color of hair, and so on. In presenting this material it is particularly important that the applicant restrain himself. After he starts to write about himself, he is surprised to find how many fascinating biographical details and personal specifications he can think up. The difficulty is that the details are fascinating only to the writer and possibly his family and friends. The employer is interested only in the items that have something to do with the job under consideration.

The possible material should be rigidly edited, therefore, and only relevant items used. If the job calls for physical stamina, the facts that the applicant is six feet tall, weighs two hundred pounds, and plunged through football lines while in college are important; if the work is passive instead of active, the employer probably will not be interested in these details. The same principle applies to race, religion, and the like.

Sometimes the personal data can be selected on the basis of their probable appeal to the particular company or individual addressed. Some companies have a reputation for being especially interested in special types of workers, such as athletes or country boys. Some employers—reacting as men rather than as employers—are known to be impressed by athletic record, church work, membership in the right

fraternity, or attendance at the right preparatory school or college. Naturally, the applicant cannot depend too much on the personal whims and prejudices of his reader, and ethically he cannot trade on his connection and prestige items. Moreover, he must be sure of his reader and not run the risk of antagonizing him by appearing to curry favor.

References. It is generally agreed that any applicant chooses his references on the basis of his belief in their ability and willingness to say useful, complimentary things about him. If he has worked for two men and pleased one but proved unsatisfactory to the other, he should have enough good sense to use the first rather than the second as an experience reference. Such use of references is only good judgment. Consequently many companies do not take the time and trouble to communicate with the references offered by the applicant; since he offers them, it is assumed that whatever they might say would be favorable rather than unfavorable. On the other hand, many companies check with references, often very thoroughly.

For a long time it was traditional to use references in groups of three: one experience, one educational, one character. This combination grew up naturally, since each reference is a specialist, and limited in his knowledge of the person being recommended. The former employer can give information on working habits and abilities; the teacher or dean can give the academic record of the applicant; the clergyman or boy scout leader can give a fairly accurate opinion and interpretation of character. There is, however, little or no overlapping of the information, since there is little overlapping of the possibilities of observation by the three men.

Keeping in mind the value of this combination of three references, the applicant should select those who he believes will be willing to give the information that will be most useful to him in connection with the particular job for which he is applying. The applicant should observe three important requirements.

1. Get permission to use the name of reference. Frequently it is not possible to get permission in advance, but one always can see, call, or write to the person afterward and explain that he has used the name because he was sure there would be no objection. If it is possible, one should get permission in advance. The two sound reasons for this procedure are good manners and self-advantage. In the first place, the reference appreciates knowing that his name is being used and sometimes is annoyed to find that it has been used without his knowledge. In the second place, if he knows the exact kind of job the applicant is

after, and what the applicant's ultimate objective is, he can give the information that will be most useful to the employer and to the applicant.

2. Give the complete name and address of the reference. Since the applicant always should assume that the references will be written to, he should give complete names and addresses, and not force the employer to find out necessary details, or to send a letter addressed, *Mr. White*, or, *Dean Black*.

3. Indicate the relationship between the reference and the applicant. If the prospective employer investigates the references by letter, it is useful for him to know whether a name is that of a former employer or a friend of the applicant's family. Usually the identification can be made by a parenthetical statement like, "who employed me last summer," or "a former teacher." Frequently even such phrases are unnecessary, if the name or address of the reference indicates why he was chosen.

Offer of cooperation. A logical close to the letter of application is a well-stated offer by the applicant to cooperate by appearing for an interview or by providing additional information. An addition to or variation of this theme is always an advantage, however, since it prevents the last paragraph from being flat and routine.

Form. The three common mechanical forms for the letter of application are (1) the conventional letter, (2) the letter with labeled sections, and (3) the letter and qualification sheet.

The first of these is self-explanatory. The second is the usual letter setup, varied by labels and headings that break up the page and call attention to different kinds of material. This makes the letter easier to read quickly and to refer to later.

Increasingly used is the combination of a short letter and a qualification sheet. One advantage of this combination is that the letter can be devoted to the sales job of identifying the applicant positively in the reader's mind. The writer's standing in relation to the job being applied for and his reason for applying are a combination of items that can be built up into a short and interesting introductory letter. Frequently one major qualification or a reference to a prestige name can be used to advantage as a means of getting the reader's attention and interest. Whatever the exact content, the letter should be kept short, it should make specific reference to the fact that a data sheet accompanies it, and it should content itself with getting the reader interested in going on to the data sheet.

Another advantage is that a data sheet can contain considerable information without seeming to be heavily loaded. Material that would fill

a two-page letter, if developed in regular paragraphs, can be condensed into a single page of tabulated data.

On the qualification sheet should appear the applicant's name and address, a small photograph, and the content already discussed. All of this material should be itemized and tabulated, rather than written in sentences or even in phrases.

The third major advantage is that if it is carefully prepared the data sheet looks well, and reflects credit on the applicant by implying that he is the kind of person who plans his work and who is careful and neat. Furthermore, a well-planned arrangement makes the material easy to read selectively; instead of the reader's working his way down the page through a series of paragraphs, he can glance down the page and read carefully those items in which he is particularly interested.

It is likely to happen that the applicant spends three almost equal portions of time on his letter. One part he spends in considering the available material, and selecting the best. Another part he devotes to organizing and planning an effective and attractive layout for the material. The third part he spends in actually writing the letter and the data sheet.

THE LETTER OF RECOMMENDATION

Even in routine applications the letter of recommendation is important to three different persons, each of whom has a different point of view toward the letter. To the employer the letter is a verification of the fact that the applicant knows someone who will support and endorse him. The employer may merely glance at the letter; or he may read it carefully and then write for supplementary information, or to discuss a point suggested by the letter. To the applicant the letter is, he hopes, an asset in the process of getting a job. To the writer, the letter of recommendation presents a double obligation: to the applicant, and to the employer.

Since the applicant is a person whom the writer has known and observed, and frequently is also a person whom he likes as a friend, there is always the desire, as well as the obligation, to say things that will help him as much as possible. Therefore, in writing a general letter of endorsement or in answering questions about the applicant, the reference is likely to make his letter a favorable one.

At the same time, there is a moral obligation to the employer. While the employer's decision about the applicant seldom is based on what references say, recommendations often are an important factor in the decision, and sometimes are one of the major factors. It follows that

the writer should not endorse a totally worthless candidate, or overpraise a mediocre one. If he does, he is only passing on to the employer a problem, and in the long run is doing nobody any good, the applicant, the employer, or the writer himself. He should control his enthusiasm for and his interest in the applicant, and make sure that his letter is a sound and conservative endorsement. Particularly, he should bring to the employer's attention any defects or limitations in the candidate that are not important enough to prevent his getting the job but are likely to show up on the job, and that the employer should know about in advance.

Often the reference writes a qualified positive recommendation; he may say in effect, "The young man is capable, but lazy." Developed into a letter, that general judgment shows that the applicant is worth considering and employing, but the employer should know about the laziness, and if necessary, do something about it. If the letter is actually a recommendation, the negative items are things of minor importance, or the applicant will outgrow them in the course of time, or they will disappear under different working conditions and because of different motivation. It is important, though, that the employer know about such factors, not only in self-defense, but also because he may be able to help the applicant to eliminate them.

Sometimes, even though the applicant has chosen his references carefully, the writer of a letter of recommendation feels obliged to write more negative statements than positive. In such a letter the positive opinions should be used at least as a secondary element, in fulfilling the writer's obligation to the applicant.

Most large companies and many small ones now use recommendation forms; therefore, instead of writing a letter, the reference finds himself filling out a form. The advantages of the form are: it can be carefully made up to cover points of information that the employer wants and that the reference might not give adequately, even in answer to questions in a letter; it gets uniform data on similar applicants over a period of time, that are likely to be useful in personnel work; it holds the reference down to the facts of the case, and forestalls the general glowing tribute that actually says nothing; it simplifies the reference's response, and minimizes the work involved.

The recommendation form is developed for a special job, type of work, or department. It usually includes questions to be answered briefly, multiple-choice items to be checked, or items to be scored according to some simple system. These depend upon the technical requirements of the job and the personal standards and ideas of the employer. Commonly the cold-blooded atmosphere of the form is off-

set somewhat by a space in which the reference writes a general statement, or comments on some of the items that he has checked or rated.

From the point of view of the employer, the form should be complete and specific. For the benefit of the reference, the form should be as simple as possible, perfectly clear, and well set up. Most important, it should not include items that force the reference to generalize unsafely, or to pass judgment for which he is not qualified through experience with and observation of the applicant.

The most common defect of the recommendation form is complexity. It is easy for the trained personnel director to become so involved in and so fascinated with the techniques of his activity that he prepares a form that the reference finds not only difficult but baffling. The form should be only one page, if possible. It also should be kept simple, so that the person who fills it out is not forced to do a great deal of hairsplitting, with the result that he finishes in a state of irritation against everybody concerned, including the innocent applicant.

COURTESY LETTERS

Incidental letters usually get too little attention. They should, however, register on paper the same consideration and good manners shown in the intelligently conducted interview or conference.

They are likely to be overlooked because they have no immediate, practical value. There is no penalty and nothing tangible is lost if they are not written. Their value lies in the fact that they reflect credit on the writer by proving him to be a mature and civilized individual. It is also true that they smooth and facilitate the complicated human relationships that exist in business.

The types of courtesy letter discussed here are representative of the principles and procedure involved.

Request for Reference or Recommendation

As stated in the discussion of the letter of application, it always is a good idea to consult a man before using his name as a reference. If this cannot be done in person or by telephone, a short but planned letter is necessary.

1. Reidentify yourself in the reader's mind. Don't expect him to remember you immediately if you worked for him three years ago and if he has employed scores of men since then.

2. Describe the job in detail. If the job is complicated, or if it is the kind of work that varies from company to company, do not give it merely a label. Indicate the duties, the amount of responsibility

involved, the possibilities and directions of advancement. It is on the basis of such information that the reference can choose the things that he says about you.

3. State your plan and objective. The reference is at least interested to know whether you plan to work into the company permanently and try for long-range advancement, or whether you want to get experience and then go on to still another employer. Such information may be important as a partial basis of the letter of recommendation.

4. If you ask for a letter of recommendation, give complete details. State how and to whom the letter should be addressed, and whether it should be sent to you or directly to the prospective employer.

5. Express your appreciation.

6. If possible, add somewhere in the letter a personal item. Its nature depends on the relation between the writer and the reader. It may be a reference to a third person, mention of a past event or experience with the reader, or even a message to the reader's wife, son, or daughter. Such material should not be forced into the letter, but if it is a topic that would come up in a conversation, it can appropriately be added, since it gives the letter a less formal tone.

Acknowledgment of Reference or Recommendation

A follow-up letter which too often is completely neglected is one to the person who has been used as a reference, thanking him for his assistance, and letting him know the outcome of the application effort.

Too often the applicant disappears silently, to reappear a year later, again wanting references and recommendations. Such behavior not only is bad manners but it overlooks the fact that since the reference is interested enough in the applicant to recommend him, he is at least moderately interested in what happens to the applicant and why. In a restricted sense, he has hazarded his own fortunes on the applicant's success. This acknowledgment letter does not need to be long or complicated, but *it should be written.*

Acknowledgment of Information or Favor

Any information or favor given should be acknowledged by a short letter which expresses appreciation and indicates that the information or favor was satisfactory, and states further the use that has been or will be made of the assistance.

This letter is important in a practical way if the writer expects to ask assistance of the reader again. The letter further identifies the writer in the reader's mind and builds up favorable associations which may be useful in the future.

Follow-up of Interview

Usually, though by no means always, an interview should be followed up by a letter.

Possible items of content are (1) appreciation of the time spent on the interview, (2) result or possible result of the interview, (3) comment on some topic, idea, or opinion that developed during the interview, (4) an appropriate personal remark or comment.

This letter often can be used to good effect to reinforce the impression made during the interview, or sometimes to correct a poor impression. It also reminds the reader of the writer and further identifies him as an individual. But it never should be used when it seems forced, or when the receiver appears to be a person who will consider such a letter an intrusion or a servile gesture.

Congratulations

A short letter to a business friend, congratulating him on some good fortune that has come to him, serves the double purpose of pleasing the reader and leading him to think well of the writer. The occasion for congratulations may be a promotion, election to office in business or in civic affairs, the winning of a prize, or a distinction that has come to some member of the family. The person to be congratulated may be a business associate, a customer, an acquaintance, or even a competitor.

The letter should be brief, sincere, and natural. It should be written in the style that is appropriate to the relationship between the writer and the reader. One may say, *I was delighted to hear that the company has at last recognized your ability and given you the promotion you have been deserving for the past four years.* Or he may say, *I am glad to be able to congratulate you on the promotion which was announced yesterday.* Whether the tone of the letter is friendly and jocular or friendly and restrained, the writer should state his message and stop; it is easy to become effusive or to be repetitious because the letter seems so short and simple. The writer should remember that his message corresponds to what he would say to his friend in person: a casual but sincere comment.

It is of course tactless to introduce a business discussion following the entering wedge of congratulations. If the writer has business matters to take up with the reader, he may write a letter with a double purpose. If, however, he writes, *Congratulations on your appointment as head of the service department. I think you are now in a position to consider the twenty-payment retirement insurance policy that we*

talked about last year, and I shall call you some time next week for an appointment, the initial friendly comment becomes merely a means to an end and the total effect is one of blatant bad manners.

Sympathy

When a business friend has been visited by misfortune rather than good fortune, a letter of sympathy may be very valuable to him. To be sure, it solves no problems, but it lets him know that you are sufficiently interested in him to take the trouble to write a letter.

A letter of condolence is difficult to write and therefore is likely to be postponed and not written. If the writer remembers that he is doing what he would do if he were to meet his friend on the street, he will be able to write a message that is brief and natural, and more satisfying to the receiver than a commercial sympathy card would be.

The following note was written to a business man whose son, a college student, was killed in an automobile accident:

> "Please accept my sympathy. I did not know your son, but I do know you, and I know that your loss is my loss and the world's loss."

THE LETTER OF INQUIRY

This letter is written when one wants for his own use any information in the form of data, facts, statistics, or opinions. It is practical in that the writer wants the information for practical use: specifications or prices of merchandise, data for use in a job project, a thesis or term paper in school, or a report to a superior. The courtesy element should be conspicuous because the writer takes the initiative and expects the reader to exert himself, frequently without any expectation of return benefit.

Six major items should be covered by the letter that requests information.

1. Identify yourself. Indicate your position and the reason why you want the information you are about to ask for.

2. State why you have selected the reader as a source of information. The reason may be the nature of the reader's business or position, his prestige or importance, or his geographic location. Whatever the reason, it usually is of interest to the reader. If you are asking for information from all bankers in two states, that fact should be made clear; if you are writing to three representative bankers or the largest bankers in a state, the reader's attitude toward the request is likely to be quite different.

3. Indicate how you will use the information if you get it. If the information is at all confidential, or if supplying it involves time and work, the proposed use of it makes a great difference in the reader's interest and willingness to cooperate. The data may be used in a term paper that will be graded and filed, never to see the light of day again; or it may be used in a speech, an article, or a published report; or it may be made available to a competitor of the reader; the possibilities are varied, and the one that applies should be stated definitely.

It is particularly important in most circumstances to state whether the data will be used with or without a designation of its source; better still, the person from whom information is requested should be asked whether he would prefer to have it used with a credit statement, or anonymously.

4. Ask for the information specifically and exactly; make it easy for the reader to respond. Here is another phase of letter writing in which the writer should do most of the work. If he simplifies his letter-writing job, he is likely to fall back on such general questions and requests as, *How is the department organized?* and *Please give me your opinion on this matter.* The objection to such questions is that they force the reader to break down the request before he can grant it. Unless he is particularly agreeable, or unless he sees some good reason why he should spend the necessary time, that is, unless he sees something he is going to get out of it he is likely not to bother.

The writer should do the breaking down and the editing. A series of specific, itemized questions is always better than a general request. A simplified questionnaire form should be considered, even with a routine request. If the reader has only to fill in spaces in the original letter, which he returns, the probability of his response is greater than if he must write an answering letter. Remember, however, that a long questionnaire is also objectionable if the reader is a busy man.

5. If possible, give some good reason why the information should be supplied. Frequently there is no good reason from the reader's point of view, since he is being asked to do something for the writer's benefit. He may respond, if at all, as a goodwill gesture; as a businessman or as an individual he sees that he has nothing to lose and may gain good will.

Sometimes there is a good reason. The reader may see the advantage of fact-gathering for purposes of reaching conclusions or recommendations. He may look forward to receiving a copy of the survey or analysis of which his data are a part. He may even respond because he knows and likes the man for whom you are working, or under whom you are studying.

6. State your appreciation. The appreciation should be well stated. Avoid trite phrases and draw upon a vocabulary of expressions that fit the circumstances and have some suggestion of your personality and individuality.

THE ORDER LETTER

In the general flow of business, many more orders in written form are submitted on specially prepared order blanks than in specially written business letters. In the wholesaler-retailer selling relationship the order blank is almost universally used. Even the casual member of the general public is likely to use an order sheet, simply because one is sent to him with his first order, and he saves it for use with his next one.

The order blank is set up or developed to serve the practical requirements of a particular company, or of a special kind of business or merchandise. It is so designed and printed as to be satisfactory to both buyer and seller. For the buyer's benefit it should be clear, simple, complete, and as near foolproof as possible. It is to the advantage of the receiving company that the form should be easy to read, and easy to check, verify, and pass on through the routine of order filling.

The individually written order letter should have the same characteristics as has the order blank. It should be clear, accurate, and complete; that is, it should contain complete and exact data on the goods being ordered, specific directions for shipping, a definite statement as to method of payment. In addition, any special considerations should be stated, and not be left to the imagination of someone in the receiving company. Any peculiar requirements as to quality, price, discount, or promptness of shipment should be stated clearly, and as emphatically as is consistent with the buyer's needs and his relationship with the seller. Usually an order for topical, seasonal, or rapidly moving merchandise should suggest an alternate or a second choice; this second choice saves time which the seller otherwise would use in writing for further instructions if a substitution is necessary.

The order letter is a simple one if it is controlled by a realistic recognition of the function that it is to perform, and particularly of the way in which it is received and handled. Except in the unusual or exclusive company, the typical order letter is read and disposed of by a busy order clerk who has fifteen or five hundred other similar letters to handle within a specified period of time. From his point of view, the successful letter is the one that can be dealt with in a minimum of time and with a minimum of effort and attention. He wants to see and use immediately all of the necessary mechanical data. He is not interested

in where the writer is going on the fishing trip for which he is ordering tackle. If he can check the order quickly, make the proper notations, and get the letter off his desk, he is satisfied. The writer of an order letter should realize this and not visualize a corporation president giving the letter his undivided attention, aided by a crystal ball for finding out missing or incomplete details.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT OF ORDERS

The method by which orders are acknowledged varies greatly, depending on the kind and amount of business being done.

Many companies follow the policy of not acknowledging orders unless there is some question or difficulty to be taken up with the buyer. The reason for this policy usually is that the enormous amount of business being carried on makes individual letters impractical; or that the orders are completely routine; or that the relations between the buyer and the seller are remote and impersonal.

Many companies acknowledge the receipt of orders by a form letter or card, with spaces filled in on the typewriter. The advantage of this procedure is that it notifies the buyer that the order has been received and is in process of being filled.

Some companies send out individual acknowledgment letters. Necessarily they add to the selling expense, but they are valuable in businesses where personal attention and little extras pay dividends in increased good will and more business.

In both the form letter and the individual letter it is fairly common practice to restate the order when errors and misunderstandings are possible because of the nature of the merchandise or the nature of the business arrangements.

Both types of letter may be made to serve a double purpose by the addition of a sales paragraph on associated goods or special offers. This material fits more naturally into the typed letter, and if well handled can convey the impression of individual interest and consideration, without high-pressure sales appeal.

The most important single requirement of the acknowledgment letter is that it be natural and restrained. Some excesses should be guarded against and avoided: the burst of enthusiastic thanks for the order, which suggests that the company does little business and that everyone is in a delirium of delight at receiving an order; the solemn assurance that the order will be filled perfectly and promptly; overemphasis on a personal interest which cannot exist in a large, impersonal company. Unless conditions really justify it, any one of these attitudes, either

stated or implied in the atmosphere and style of writing, is likely to do more harm than good because it does not sound reasonable.

THE COMPLAINT LETTER

The complaint or claim letter is written when the buyer needs to take up with the seller some major or minor matter of dissatisfaction, and cannot discuss the matter by oral methods. Since all businesses are subject to error and imperfection, dissatisfactions occur; and when they do they should be adjusted to the satisfaction of both buyer and seller.

Complaints are made in connection with quality and quantity of merchandise delivered; condition and time in which merchandise is delivered; terms, time, or method of billing; and service or treatment received by the buyer at the hands of the seller, or the seller's representative.

The writer of a complaint letter should recognize clearly the fact that his primary motive is self-interest; that is, he is asking for an adjustment that will be to his advantage and possibly to the disadvantage of the adjusting company. Therefore he should write the letter that is likely to serve his interest best. It is one that is complete, concise, and tactful.

The complete adjustment letter gives all of the facts. It identifies the order or transaction, or the time of the occurrence being complained about; it makes reference by specific date and order number rather than in vague terms. It states clearly the kind or amount of the damage or other claim. It indicates, but does not overemphasize, the inconvenience and disadvantage that the writer has suffered. Finally, it asks for a definite adjustment. This point is particularly important; it tells the receiving company what is fair and reasonable from the writer's point of view.

The complaint letter is concise if it confines itself to the facts of the case, and does not degenerate into a long, personalized narrative with editorial comment. At its best the letter is a negative communication, for it involves complications and raises a problem; the negative quality should be minimized.

To be tactful the complaint letter must be restrained; more exactly, the writer must curb his often justifiable rage and frustration. Usually the difficulty that causes the complaint also causes inconvenience, extra work, or loss of money. For that reason the complainer usually is in a state of indignation when he registers his protest and asks for justice. He defeats his purpose, however, if he writes while his emotions still are out of control. There is great temporary satisfaction in writing,

Apparently you employ clumsy morons as shipping clerks; or, *Did your bookkeepers complete their education in the third grade?* or, *Are your adding machines all out of repair?* or, as the final crushing threat, *If you do not adjust this matter to my complete satisfaction immediately, I shall never do business with your company again.* While such statements are satisfying to write, they are not pleasant to read. The writer should remember that the purpose of his letter is to get as good an adjustment as possible, and that he is lowering his chances of satisfactory adjustment if he antagonizes the receiving company by violent, disagreeable statements. The advice frequently given to individuals is to write a furious letter of complaint merely to get the annoyance up to the surface of the mind and out of the system; then to throw the letter away and write again, this time with more tact and restraint. The same advice applies to company letter writers, for it is not only the customer who handicaps his adjustment and prejudices his reader by a tactless, intemperate exhibition of annoyance.

THE ADJUSTMENT LETTER

In the more complicated merchandising businesses, where claims are frequent and inevitable, adjustment work is as difficult and delicate as any phase of selling. It is done both orally and by writing, and ordinarily requires the services of unusually alert and tactful persons who are familiar with the precedents and policies of their companies, and are trained in business principles and procedures.

Since almost any adjustment is the result of a complaint or difficulty, the basic purpose of all adjustment work is to renew or restore the business relationship with the customer on a mutually satisfactory basis. The ideal adjustment is the one that gives the maximum satisfaction to the customer with a minimum loss to the company. Therefore the adjuster is faced with the problem of reconciling these two semi-contradictory factors, always keeping in mind company policy and expediency.

The three general steps in making an adjustment by mail are (1) to determine if the claim is an end in itself or an excuse for some larger complaint issue; (2) to determine the adjustment on the basis of the facts of the case and of company policy; and (3) to write the adjustment letter.

The first factor does not always apply, but it always should be considered. Particularly in the retailer-wholesaler relationship, the special claim is sometimes used to cover up a general grievance or a desire. For example, the retailer is dissatisfied with the terms or the treatment

he is receiving and wants to change his wholesale account; at the same time he does not want to write to the wholesaler and say that he is discontinuing business relations. Or he is offered better terms by another wholesaler, but because his present wholesaler has treated him well he hesitates to take the initiative and close the account. In these and similar circumstances, persons having some types of business mind find what they consider to be a neat solution in the form of a complaint about a recent order, bill, or item of service. Since this possibility exists, it is the duty of the adjuster to determine for his own benefit in working out the adjustment whether he is dealing with a simple claim, or a claim with complications.

The adjustment to be made depends on several considerations. One is the facts of the claim as stated by the customer. A second is supplementary information shown by the customer's record; especially important are the length of his relationship with the company, the aggregate amount of his orders over a period of time, his payment record, and his complaint record. A third factor is the company policy and procedure in dealing with the kind of problem being considered.

The claim may be handled in one of three ways. Commonly the seller is at fault, and the claim is granted. That is, the facts indicate that careless secretarial work or packing, inaccurate billing, or some other deficiency of the seller is the reason for the claim. Sometimes even additional concessions are made in the interest of good will. The second possibility is the one in which the buyer is at fault, but the claim is granted to keep a good customer. The buyer is wrong in his figuring or inaccurate in his statement, but the seller considers it more important to please the customer than to quibble over a minor matter. The third possibility shows the customer to be at fault, and because of the facts of the case or the amount of money involved, the seller denies the claim.

Of the three claims the third is the most difficult to write about, If the seller is at fault and the claim is granted, the letter is little more than a personalized notification; it acknowledges the error and states the adjustment that is to be made. If the buyer is at fault and the claim is granted, the letter still is an announcement; it indicates the conditions of the adjustment and minimizes the reasons for it, since it never is good policy to call attention to the fact that the customer is wrong. But if the buyer is at fault and the claim is denied, the letter must effect the difficult compromise of refusing the claim that the customer has asked for, and still make him feel that he has been treated well by a company with which he wants to continue to do business. This compromise usually is worked out by a straightforward statement of the

facts, an explanation of the reason why the claim cannot be granted, and an appeal to the customer's sense of equality and fairness. The letter must show that the seller wants to retain the buyer's trade and good will, and it must show why the refusal of the claim is consistent with that desire.

In all three types of letter several working practices should be observed.

The adjustment letter should not emphasize the negative elements in the case. Particularly to be avoided are such phrases as *your complaint, your claim, the mistake.* It should always be assumed that when the customer wrote his complaint letter he was annoyed or at the least inconvenienced. Time has passed and it can now be assumed that the edge of his grievance has been dulled. Any reminder of his original state of mind, however, is likely to recreate that state of mind; and negative phrases and negative emphasis are efficient reminders.

The letter should not state or imply that the claim is unusual. On the surface the statement, *Your complaint was a big surprise to us; we have never had a similar one,* sounds impressive; a second consideration shows it to be too good to be true. Furthermore, it tends to place the buyer at a disadvantage because it puts him in the wrong.

If an error must be admitted, it should be admitted without overemphasis, and it should be accepted as a company responsibility. A technique formerly advocated was to blame an individual employee; to say, for example, *We find that the error was made by an inefficient billing clerk, who has now been discharged.* Such a statement was regarded as sure-fire, since it reflected great consideration for the customer's welfare, and gave him a feeling of importance and power. Because this technique was overworked and often used falsely, it became unconvincing and ineffective. A sounder policy is to accept the fact that any error is the company's error, to be remedied if possible.

At the same time, the letter should not be too humble and apologetic. If the error is admitted at the beginning of the letter, that emphasis is enough. The letter is handicapped rather than improved by a final statement such as, *Again may we apologize for our mistake and for the inconvenience which it must have caused you.* The letter also is weakened if it is effusive in its assurances and promises. The statement, *We assure you that there never will be another mistake in our business relations,* seems like a builder of good will; but people and machines being what they are, both seller and buyer, if they are realistic, know that it is an empty promise.

One of the most useful positive devices in the adjustment letter is personal emphasis, usually taking the form of personal rather than

company attention. For example, if the letter refuses the claim but indicates that the writer is writing as a person as well as a company official, the buyer is likely to react more favorably to the decision that the letter conveys. At least he knows that his case has received careful attention, rather than being arbitrarily classified by the company as a type of claim.

Another device frequently recommended is to make the letter accomplish a selling as well as an adjusting purpose; that is, to add direct selling material in the form of information on special items of merchandise, price offers, and time limits of sale. The theory is that this material constitutes a shift in interest and attention to the reader. The limitation, of course, is that the shift must be natural and convincing; otherwise the customer knows that he is being diverted from the real issue.

THE SALES LETTER

Of all varieties of business letter the sales letter has received the most careful and scientific attention. It has been developed by specialists into a highly potent sales instrument, as well as a complicated and technical form of business writing.

The sales letter has been given extensive and concentrated attention because it is the most aggressive of all business letters; it promotes and builds business and increased profits, whereas other types of letter have no direct return in profits, or they are written only to repair damage.

As a selling medium the letter has many advantages, most of which are inherent in the method of communication it employs. It is adaptable to any type of merchandise, and can promote merchandise in an individual and personal way. Since letters can be produced rapidly, they constitute a highly flexible medium of promotion, and can be adapted to topical appeals, lines of popular interest, and the like. A major advantage of the sales letter is that it can be directed selectively. It is possible to procure mailing lists of groups. These may be tabulated by profession, geographic location, social status, age, hobby interest, educational background, physical handicap, or any other distinguishing characteristic which makes prospects susceptible to special sales appeals. Finally, an advantage of the sales letter is its low cost. In contrast to promotion work done personally by salesmen, the letter is inexpensive, and therefore can be sent into areas where it would be unprofitable to send a salesman.

A common classification of sales letters by types results in five dis-

tinct kinds, which demonstrate the versatility of the sales letter, and emphasize the different points of view and kinds of content that the writer can use.

1. The letter used to advertise contains general, and sometimes specific, information that is of interest to the reader, to induce him to seek further information. The purpose of this letter is not to develop and close a sales appeal, but to stimulate interest and to maintain customer consciousness of the company name, trade names, or individual products.

2. The letter used to prepare for a salesman's call usually only directs the customer's attention to a product or a special offer, and leaves the rest of the selling process to the salesman. If it is timed correctly the letter can assist materially the personal work of the traveling representative.

3. A letter may be used to follow up a salesman's call. Frequently the content of the letter, emphasis on products, the company name, and even the mere arrival of the letter is important in supplementing and reinforcing the salesman's work. Used effectively, and coordinated with other forms of advertising promotional work, this letter is an important means of maintaining contact between the company and the customer.

4. The letter used to induce customers to come to the store, in local areas, is a valuable medium of direct, topical advertising. In connection with special price offers, new merchandise, time offers, and special inducements to charge customers or other groups, the letter has more personal appeal and gets more direct attention than newspaper or radio advertising.

5. The letter used to sell directly to the customer is a complete sales letter; its purpose is to initiate and complete the sale, with the result that the reader places an order by mail and thereby becomes a customer. Ordinarily the complete sales letter is the most difficult to write; but it has the advantage of being the most practical of the five types in terms of returns, since the writer can determine exactly how many readers responded to his letter. Because most selling is too complicated to be accomplished in a single letter, the complete sales letter usually is broken down into parts. The result is the sales letter series; that is, two, three, four, or even ten letters spaced over a period of time and sent to the same mailing list. With the sales letter series the selling effort is not completed until the last letter has been sent; and the returns are not final until the readers have had a chance to respond to the last letter.

The most important single fact about the sales letter is the basic structure or organization of the content. Although this structure can be

reduced to a formula, it should be regarded as variable and subject to considerable modification. In fact, the real skill in sales letter writing consists in following the general selling plan, but making the letter unusual, individual, and irresistible.

The four parts of the letter organization are (1) attracting the reader's attention, (2) arousing active interest or desire, (3) convincing and persuading the reader, (4) stimulating definite reader action. These parts are, of course, the parts of any selling procedure, whether it is carried out by mail or in person. In a series of letters, frequently the individual letters devote themselves to special parts of the selling process, and the sequence rather than any one letter follows through the four parts. It is not necessarily true that a four-letter series consists of one letter on each step in selling, but the climactic development of material can be traced through the succession of letters, and the function of each letter can be determined.

Attracting Attention

The two possibilities of attracting reader attention are (1) the form, appearance, and mechanics of the letter, and (2) the first sentence of the letter content.

When the reader receives a letter, his first impression is his reaction to the appearance of the envelope. A sealed envelope of attractive paper stock obviously has more appeal than a cheap, unsealed one. Company name, trademark, advertising slogan, and other material on the outside of the envelope constitute a debatable topic. Under different conditions and with different mailing lists, quite different methods are followed successfully. The appearance of the letter itself depends on grade of paper, method of writing used, form of salutation, and supplementary decoration. Here again widely different devices and theories have been followed with equal success. The only generalization that can be made about form and appearance is that the letter should be in harmony with the kind of reader, and as carefully and expensively prepared as possible.

The first sentence of the letter content is the first idea impression that the letter makes on the reader. Because of its importance it should make deliberate use of some device, or combination of devices, for gaining attention. The following are common methods of effecting the desirable initial emphasis.

1. A statement from the reader's point of view serves to fix the reader's attention on himself. *I want to interest you in a new and attractive article*, is a weak first sentence as compared with, *You will find useful in your work the article about which I am going to tell you.*

2. Emphasis should be positive rather than negative. Negative facts and ideas always are unattractive; furthermore, they tend to divert our attention to our own negative thinking. If a letter begins by saying, I know as well as you do that business is bad, the reader is likely to take time out to meditate on his approaching bankruptcy before he goes on reading the letter.

3. Statement should be direct rather than indirect. The general, impersonal statement always is an indirect appeal, since any interest value in it must be worked out by the reader; it is not brought to his attention directly. *With Christmas approaching, the shrewd present-buyer should consider the best possible, available choice for that special present* is an indirect way of saying, *Have you considered giving your wife an electric refrigerator this Christmas?*

4. A question may be used, for curiosity appeal. The interrogative first sentence has been much overused and misused, but it still is an effective start to a sales letter if the question is pertinent and if it directs the reader's thinking to himself.

5. The imperative first sentence has the advantage of being authoritative. It tends to arouse confidence and to reflect credit and prestige on the writer. For example, *When you make another investment, find out about two things,* sounds impartial, reliable, and interesting.

6. A conditional statement also has curiosity appeal. Its interest value lies in finding out the effect of the stated cause. *If you want to save at least ten per cent on your fuel bill, consider the following facts,* gets attention because of the saving suggested, and because the reader wants to go on and find the supporting evidence.

7. Many effective sales letters begin with a very short narrative. The story must be closely connected with the product being written about, and it must be a good story and appropriate to the interest of the receiver of the letter.

All of these seven devices have been used repeatedly. They are the basic methods of attracting attention, however, and if used with some individuality and imagination they can be adapted to any selling material.

Arousing Interest

Reader interest, developed from reader attention, is stimulated by the general process of relating the article being written about to the reader's need for that article. Frequently the need or desire is one of which the reader is already conscious; sometimes the reader must be made aware of a need of which he is still unaware. In October the householder feels the need for providing winter fuel, but at the age of

twenty-one nobody is impressed by the idea of old age retirement insurance.

Need and desire can be emphasized by a variety of methods. Probably the most common device is development of the article appeal, followed by the brand appeal. That is, the reader's interest is directed to the kind of merchandise being promoted. Then he is carried on to a consideration of the particular merchandise being sold by the writer. For example, an interest in electric flatirons is followed by an interest in the Apex Supreme.

Description of the article is commonly included as a means of making the article appealing and desirable. Description is especially effective, of course, in connection with merchandise that has charm and glamour, or that conveys charm and glamour to its owner.

Convincing and Persuading the Reader

The sales letter intensifies the reader's interest by building it up. The continuation of this process is a combination of rational and emotional appeals.

In general, the reader is convinced of the desirability of an article by specific evidence that the letter offers. This evidence may take the form of substantiated facts, testimonials and endorsements, trial offers, samples, and guarantees. Any of these devices, if legitimately used, make the article seem substantial and reliable, as well as desirable. The reader arrives at the reasonable conclusion that he wants to buy it.

In general, the reader is persuaded of the desirability of an article by emotional appeals. Direct and indirect appeals may be made to the primary instincts of self-preservation and sex; and to the emotional reactions involved in fear, comfort, pride, love, aggressiveness, imitation, and a great many more. Persuasive material leads the reader to want the article, not for any reason that he can state in words or can support by facts, but because apparently it will satisfy the need and the desire of which he is emotionally conscious.

As in other circumstances, conviction and persuasion are combined in an infinite variety of proportions and forms. Furthermore, the two lines of appeal usually overlap and repeat each other. In most sales letters, however, the kind of appeal being made can be identified. And as the letter is being prepared, one of the lines of thinking that the writer must follow through is the means and methods that will make the subject of the letter most attractive and desirable to the reader.

Stimulating Reader Action

The reader's action after reading a sales letter depends on the kind of sales letter, and its purpose. If the letter is of the general advertising

type, the reader reaction can hardly be more than increased awareness of company, product, or brand; usually there is no specific action that he can take. On the other hand, if the letter is designed to complete a sale, the action desired is the placing of an order by means of filling out an order blank, or returning a card asking for a salesman's call or a demonstration.

Where definite action is expected it should be made as easy and simple as possible. Specific directions should be given. *Why not have our salesman call to see you?* is a weak stimulus in contrast to, *On the enclosed card check the date on which you would like to have our salesman call, and return the card to us.* Equally important is the fact that it is always ineffective to give the reader two possibilities of action, through the mistaken notion that the writer is doing him a service. If the letter ends with the suggestion, *Come to our store within the next week for a demonstration, or call us up and we will have a salesman drop around to see you,* the reader is likely to consider both actions, and take neither.

The stimulus to action should be strong, but believable. Common points of emphasis are (1) setting a date for the close of a special price offer, (2) indicating an increase in price after a specified date, and (3) indicating limited facilities or supply. Any one of these devices is convincing if it is supported by what the customer already knows about the company, the current market, and the article being offered for sale. Too often the effort to be emphatic results in the kind of hysterical overemphasis that leaves the reader cold. *Only three days more in which to take advantage of this remarkable offer! Hurry! Hurry!! HURRY!!!* probably stimulates only the more unsophisticated buyer, if any.

It cannot be emphasized too strongly that the sales formula, like any letter-writing formula, is useful only as a working basis on which to build an individual letter. Every selling situation is a special case. Given the same product, the same price, and the same mailing list, the selling problem in 1950 is different from the selling problem in 1941. The letter writer shows his skill when he takes advantage of subtle differences and new possibilities, and produces a letter that conforms to the basic pattern of the selling technique, but is a personalized, individual letter, or series of letters.

THE COLLECTION LETTER

Collection work is similar to adjustment work in three major respects. Both tasks present problems. Both are done in person and by telephone, as well as by letter; in addition, the telegram is used in many collection efforts. Most important, collections and adjustments both should be

carried out with the double purpose of settling the difficulty and keeping the customer's good will and patronage.

The collection letter, like the collection call, is a selling instrument. Every effort is made to sell the collection idea, to convince the customer that he should pay rather than merely to squeeze the money from him.

Since the collection appeal must be built up and made attractive, collection letters ordinarily are used in series rather than singly. The typical series consists of two or more bill statements, a formal printed reminder, individual letters, and finally (in extreme cases) legal action.

The characteristics of any collection series (the number, timing, and content of the letters) depend on two factors: the type of risk being dealt with, and the reason why the account has not been paid.

The classification of a person or a company as a type or grade of credit risk is worked out by a correlation of several kinds of information. Professional rating agencies are widely used. Other information is found in the process of establishing credit relations; that is, the data, references, and other information that the customer submits when he applies for credit with the company. The established customer classifies or reclassifies himself by the way in which he carries out the terms of his account; if his record shows that he stretches every time limit, he automatically becomes a slow payer.

All of the information obtainable cannot do more than rate a customer as a potential risk. Conditions change rapidly, and the person who formerly paid his bills only under stress now pays promptly, and vice versa. It also often is true that the customer maintains better relations with one company than he does with another. It follows, then, that even the most exact and scientific classification still leaves the collection problem a personal and variable one.

If possible, the reason for nonpayment should be determined before actual collection work is begun. Sometimes the reason cannot be established. A common form of effort, however, is the direct, personal letter which asks the customer if there is some reason for delayed payment, and suggests that the matter can be adjusted if the customer will state his point of view and condition. The advantage of this gesture is that it reflects personal interest and consideration on the part of the creditor, and implies that even strict credit terms are open to reasonable adjustment. The disadvantage of the query letter is that it attempts to force the customer to admit facts that he prefers to ignore as long as he can; this disadvantage is minimized by a check list in the letter, to be returned by the customer, making it possible for him to indicate his reason for nonpayment without going into detail or even committing himself to a written statement.

Frequently the reason why the bill has not been paid is evident from the condition of the customer's business as reflected by business conditions generally, the rate of movement of his stock, or oral reports from the salesman who has visited him. Sometimes even a special trip to talk with the customer, make observations, and question local residents is worth while.

If a definite reason is established, it always proves to be one of the following or a combination of two or more:

Misunderstanding of terms
Neglect of the bill—plain carelessness or bad management
Dissatisfaction with goods, service, or terms
Effort to postpone payment until the last possible moment, so that money can be kept as long as possible
Temporary lack of funds
Permanent or chronic lack of funds
Deliberate intention not to pay the bill, if payment can be avoided

It is apparent that the customer who is withholding payment because of temporary lack of funds has a different mental attitude from the one who makes a practice of not paying his bills. Similarly, each of the other reasons classifies the customer as to type of mind, personality, and business ethics; and the classification, if it can be determined, is more accurate and useful than the general rating arrived at on the basis of the usual credit rating procedures.

Common practice in collection work is the standard use of several series of letters, each one adapted to a particular kind of customer as determined by the methods already discussed. The first few letters in the series are written by the company, the next few by the collection department; then the emphasis is changed by having the next letter written by the credit department, or even the president of the company.

The whole collection effort consists of a series of trial appeals. An idea, a fact, or a type of letter that will bring response from one customer leaves another unmoved. Consequently the writers employ a variety of tactics in the hope that if one appeal is not successful, the next one will be.

The individual letter follows the same general plan as does the sales letter. The reader's attention and interest must be focused on the matter at hand, the collection idea must be made attractive to him, and he must be stimulated to action.

One of the disadvantages of any collection letter is that it brings to the reader's attention an unpleasant subject. If he receives many collection letters he soon recognizes the methods that they employ; furthermore, if he has owed a company money for several months and re-

ceives a letter from that company, he knows before he opens the envelope that he is being asked to pay his bill. This negative, unpleasant atmosphere can be offset by the appearance of the letter, by the things said, and by the style and manner of saying them. In general it can be assumed that the letter will be read, if only to determine how the creditor's patience is holding out, and when drastic action may be expected.

Collection appeals used to sell the idea of paying a delinquent bill are built up around the four basic motifs of honor, self-interest, pride, and fairness. The honor appeal stresses the moral and ethical obligation of the credit contract. The self-interest appeal shows how failure to pay will affect the reader's credit standing, business rating, and local reputation. An appeal to the customer's pride is similar to the self-interest appeal, and appears to be most effective with capable business men who are sensitive to any direct or implied criticism of their business methods or abilities, the inadequacies of which have resulted in the present unfortunate lapse in payment. The fairness appeal stresses the interrelationship and interdependence of units of business. For example, the wholesaler points out to the retailer that just as the retailer must collect his bills in order to stay in business, so must the wholesaler do likewise.

These basic appeals can be used in a variety of ways, and they can be used both obviously and subtly. To be effective they must be adapted to the kind of person being written to. The unscrupulous customer merely sneers at an appeal to his honor because he knows, even if the creditor does not, that he has none. Another type of customer has the kind of personal integrity that causes him to react thoughtfully, conscientiously, and positively to an appeal to his honor as a business man.

In business companies that are faced by a constant collection problem, this work becomes highly developed and specialized. Like other phases of business activity, it must be performed by persons who are not only skilled in business and business writing, but who are also imaginative and sympathetic.

THE STUNT LETTER

Although most letters of the types discussed conform to the usual standards of business letter form, appearance, and content, many do not. The stunt letter is one that deviates radically from the normal. It attempts to get an effect by surprise, by being entirely different, or by appealing to the reader through some supplementary area of reaction, such as his sense of humor.

The advantage of the stunt letter is that if it is effective it is likely to be very effective. Sometimes it really does surprise, interest, and entertain the reader; and many recorded instances demonstrate that, given the right conditions, the stunt letter gets better results than does the conventional letter.

The limitation of the stunt letter is that if it is not effective it is very ineffective. The funny story that is not quite funny is pathetic; similarly, the stunt that does not quite work falls very flat. It is also true that the range of possibilities is limited, and that in an effort to continue to be different many writers of unusual letters make them not only unusual, but weird and ludicrous.

The stunt appeal can be worked into any of the business letters discussed. The application letter can be made unusual in form or content. One enterprising young man sent out a group of application letters in glass bottles, with mailing tags attached. Another hand-lettered his application on a rolled scroll. A third presented his qualifications from the cynical point of view, saying, in effect, *I'm not much good, but if you want to take a chance on me, here I am.* These three instances, all of which produced rather spectacularly satisfactory results, show both the value and the danger of the stunt effect. If the idea or method is really new and different it is a surprise attack on the reader's attention, interest, and positive reactions. Even the best idea cannot remain new for long, however. If all letters were mailed in glass bottles, for example, the effect would soon cease to be novel, and the mail system would be handicapped by broken glass.

Very large letters; very small letters; colored letters; letters with attached samples, buttons, strings, nails, and bird seed have been used, and the possibilities are not yet exhausted.

The stunt collection letter has been much used as a break or relief in the collection series. The theory is that if the regular, conservative letter fails to stimulate the debtor, the flashy letter may surprise or amuse him into a reaction.

The only generalization that can be made with safety is that the letter writer should be sure of his ground before he uses a stunt letter. As far as possible he should be sure that his trick will be a good trick when the receiver sees it. At the planning point, as at all points in letter writing, the writer must see things as the reader will see them; he must be sure that the joke that he considers amusing will not seem to the reader to be slightly queer, and that the effect that he considers ingenious and clever will not startle, puzzle, or even alarm the reader. Perhaps the stunts should be left to the experts who, by analysis and controlled tests, are sure of their results.

June 14, 1947

Mr. James T. Seldon
Seldon and Proctor Company
876 Madison Street
Norfolk, Virginia

Dear Mr. Seldon:

Can you use in your company an accountant who has a good academic record and considerable informal experience?

As the accompanying qualification sheet indicates, I am a new college graduate with concentrated training in accounting and related business subjects.

Because my family has moved to Richmond, I should like to locate permanently in Virginia. I am therefore writing to several companies which have been recommended to me as having the type of accounting work which I am qualified to do, and in which I am interested.

Mr. Thomas B. Bland, for whom I worked one summer, has told me that he has done business with you for years. He suggested that I present my qualifications to you.

I shall appreciate any consideration you can give me. I shall be in Richmond after July 1, and I shall be available to come to Norfolk, if you would like to talk with me.

Yours very truly,

Bruce A. Henderson

Illustration 4. Application Letter

Bruce A. Henderson

Address

(until June 30)
590 Marlboro Street
Boston, Massachusetts

Photograph

(after June 30)
46 Magnolia Road
Richmond, Virginia

Personal Details

Age .. 22
Weight .. 158 pounds
Height .. 5' 11"
Health .. Good

Nationality .. American, of Scotch descent
Religion .. Episcopalian
Marital Status .. Unmarried

Education

B.S.C. degree from Sagamore College, June, 1947
Specialized courses taken during the four-year curriculum

Economics (3 years)	Cost Accounting
Business English (2 years)	Accounting Problems
Marketing	Accounting Systems
Investments	Commercial Law

Summer school at University of Minnesota, 1946, with courses in Auditing, Corporation Management, and Public Utilities

Experience

Two summers (1944–1945) assistant bookkeeper, Truro Hotel, Kennebunk, Maine
One summer (1946) field assistant to Mr. Thomas B. Bland
Two years student assistant in Department of Accounting, Sagamore College
Two years fraternity treasurer
Business manager of class yearbook (1947)
Business manager of three class dances

Skills

Ability to use typewriter (65 words a minute), adding machine, comptometer
Running ability (on college track team for three years, in distance events)

References

Prof. Robert S. Sloan, Department of Accounting, Sagamore College
Mr. Craig Baxter, Manager, Truro Hotel, Kennebunk, Maine
Mr. Thomas B. Bland, 75 State Street, Boston, Massachusetts

Illustration 4. Application Letter (Continued)

GOLD MEDAL

Paul F. L. Gleiter
Hammond, Wisconsin

When Beauty is Bottled!

Remember, back in the bread and butter days of boyhood when you carried a jug to the grocer to be filled with vinegar? Crackers came out of a barrel. Coffee and tea came out of a tin. Candy was kept in a pail and it didn't take the flies long to find it out.

Those were the good old days but nobody paid much attention to pretty packages or beautiful bottles. But today, what a change has come over merchandising!

Anything that's worth selling is worth a proper package. As a matter of fact, if a product isn't properly presented, you just can't sell it that's all.

A merchandising revolution is under way and this might be called the period of the Package. Beauty can be bottled and given a colorful, coaxing, sales-appeal, smoothing the rough edges of sales resistance.

You can dramatize your product by perfect packaging. You can place your honey in the spotlight of customer attention by the mere beauty of a bottle. And a lovely label!

The trend of the times is toward the compact. Aeppler Honey Jars will work wonders when it comes to sending your sales skyhigh. Do you mind if we modestly mention that our honey jars, in open competition, in the All-America Package Competition sponsored by Modern Packaging Magazine, were pronounced by judges of national reputation, as among the outstanding packages of America!

Is it any wonder we're proud of them? And you'll be proud to use them too.

Yours for better honey packaging,

C. W. AEPPLER COMPANY

Illustration 5. Sales Promotion Letter (Dartnell Gold Medal Letters)

Dear Mrs. Wheeler:

Of course you know the feeling that comes when you step on an extra-fine rug or carpet. Your foot is softly cushioned in the thick pile, you experience a feeling of well being, and perhaps you envy--just a little bit--the friend who can own such a luxurious floor covering.

Your friends might well envy you when you get your rug or carpet from us. Its color will add cheer to your home, its close weave promises long life, its cost is surprisingly low. We offer a wide range of colors, patterns, and textures. And your purchase carries a guarantee of complete satisfaction.

Then why delay? The longer you put it off, the longer you deny yourself the pleasure of owning a fine floor covering.

Consider the two plans that we offer. If you want to enjoy the rug while you are paying for it, fill in Plan 2 of the enclosed form, and send us your order with the required deposit. A cash remittance in accordance with Plan 1 will at once place the rug or carpet of your choice in your home.

Yours very truly,

Sales Department

Illustration 6. Complete Sales Letter

Dear Mrs. Henry:

A short while ago we planned your water softener requirements. We are interested to know your reaction. Were the plans satisfactory? Is there anything more we can do?

If you have made a comparison of market prices on other water softeners, you have found that our prices represent a saving in most instances of $20.00 or more.

If you have examined the facts, you know that by the use of a water softener the average family will save at least $35.00 a year on soap and by saving clothes from excessive wear even where water is only moderately hard.

Our sturdily constructed water softeners have been laboratory tested. Comments by satisfied customers reinforce those tests. Our guarantee protects you fully. Why not send us your order now, and reduce wear and tear on your clothes next washday?

For your convenience we have enclosed a prepaid envelope.

Yours truly,

Sales Department

Illustration 7. Follow-up Sales Letter

Dear Mr. Wheeler:

A train and an account are alike in one respect--both are sometimes late.

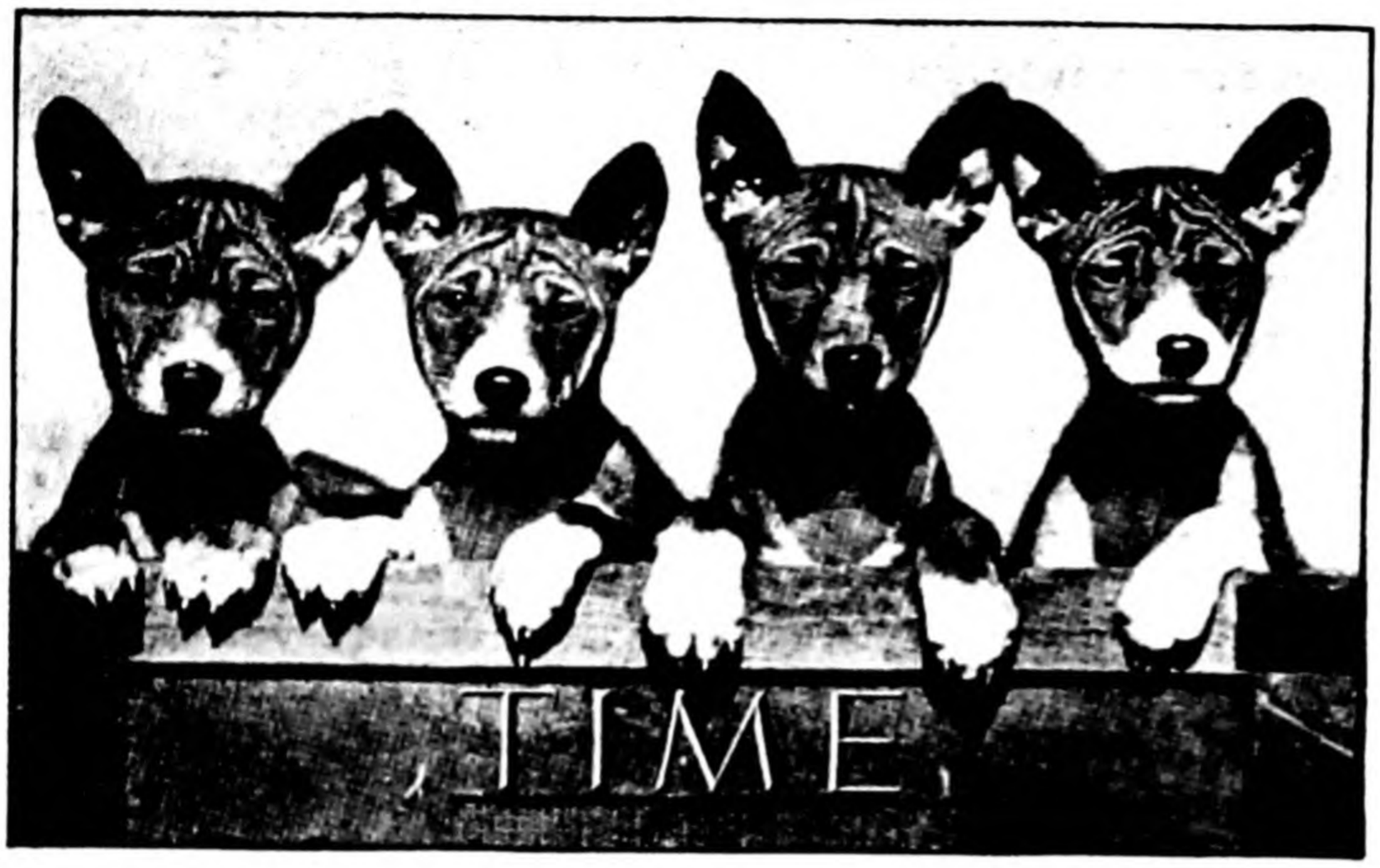
We are sending this letter because your account with us is overdue. We're asking you, just as you would ask the station master, "What time do you guess she'll roll in?"

How about making out your check for $34.85 and saying, "Here she comes!"

Yours truly,

Credit Department

Illustration 8. Collection Letter Which Takes the Form of a Strong but Cheerful Reminder



540 N. MICHIGAN AVE. • CHICAGO 11 • ILLINOIS

Dear Subscriber:

These four little dogs from Africa are called Basenjis --

-- and I am sending you their picture because only one Basenji in history has ever been known to bark. All the others neither bark nor yelp, but only softly "grooo."

TIME never barks either, about overdue bills like this one -- nor are we as worried about your account as these four little Basenjis seem to be.

But I would like to mark this bill "Paid" -- and stop "groooing" to you about it in the mails.

So please will you attach a check to it and return it to me today?

Cordially,

Charles Mason

CM-H Credit Manager

Illustration 9. Collection Letter from a Series
(Courtesy of *Time*, the Weekly News Magazine)

Dear Mr. Price:

As a business man you have often extended credit, expecting that your debtor would pay at a certain time.

If you did not receive payment on the expected date, you sent a statement. After a week or ten days, you mailed another statement, and then another. You had full confidence in the gentleman, or you would not have extended credit to him.

After getting no response to your first statement, you reassured yourself by thinking, "There are many reasons why a man cannot always pay promptly." And after the second statement you probably thought, "It's strange that I don't hear from Mr. Blank." After no reply to the third statement you must have thought—"Mr. Blank isn't much concerned with this account because, even if he can't pay now, he surely can explain conditions."

To be convinced of Mr. Blank's good intentions, to retain your confidence in him, you wanted either his explanation or a check balancing his account.

This is the history of our account ($65.20) with you.

Will you not convince us of your good intentions?

Yours very truly,

Illustration 10. Collection Letter Which Appeals to the Debtor's Honor

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Dear Mrs. Maguire:

Summer days are here again and we are sure that you are enjoying thoroughly the Polar Cub electric fan that you purchased from us.

May we count on receiving promptly a check for $12.50, which is the balance due on your account?

We are enclosing a description of the new electric drier designed to be used with the washing machine that you bought from us about a year ago. We think you will be interested in it, and, as the leaflet suggests, a demonstration in your home will show you its value and advantages.

When you mail in your check, just name a time for a demonstration of the drier.

Yours very truly,

Illustration 11. Collection Reminder That Includes Sales Material

Mr.....
.....
.....

Dear Mr.....
Re.....

I feel that it is part of my duty to keep its personal touch as much as possible with our customers, and investigate all cases where the normal course of pleasant business relationship has been interrupted for some reason.

Our Credit Department has called my attention to the fact that for some reason unknown to us our communication concerning the unpaid balance on your account has met with no satisfactory response.

While we would not pretend to be disinterested in the money itself, please accept my assurance that we are far more concerned about our good relations for the future. If some circumstance has arisen to alter the condition under which you bought and obtained credit from us, will you please take a moment to tell me about it?

Just write on the back of this letter, using the enclosed stamped envelope, which is marked for my personal attention.

Very truly yours,

NEW ENGLAND CONFECTIONERY COMPANY

Horace S. Pidley
President

GOLD MEDAL

Illustration 12. Personalized Collection Letter (Dartnell Gold Medal Letters)

Gentlemen:

You will probably wonder why this rubber band is fastened to this letter. It has been put there to illustrate a rather important business principle.

If you will take this rubber band and stretch it just as far as you can, you will observe that the more it is stretched, the more resistance it offers to be stretched. You will also find that when a certain point is reached, it will snap and break. That point is known as the "breaking point"

Your credit and this rubber band have much in common. Once it breaks, the most important asset in your business is lost--your reputation for paying bills promptly.

Why not get out your check book and send us a check for at least a portion of your account. It is tremendously important so far as your good name is concerned. Do it now.

Yours very truly,

HUBER SLIPPER CO., INC.

L. F. Huber

Secretary

LFH:R

MEDAL GOLD

Illustration 13. Stunt Collection Letter

Dear Mr. White:

We are sorry to learn from your letter of April 10 that the mahogany desk which you ordered as a birthday gift for your son arrived so badly marred that you cannot accept it.

Since the B and A gave us a receipt acknowledging that the desk was received perfectly crated, it must have been damaged in transit. Although our responsibility ends when the railroad has accepted the desk, we know how interested you are in this fine gift for your son. We are therefore sending to you today, by prepaid express, another desk, exactly like the one you ordered. It should reach you promptly and in good condition.

If you will telephone to the express company asking them to make delivery immediately upon the arrival of the desk at their receiving station, you should have the desk not later than the day of your son's birthday.

The railroad will call for the damaged desk. We shall enter a claim with them, so that you will not be troubled further.

Thank you for writing to us so promptly and thereby enabling us to help you.

Yours very truly,

Illustration 14. Adjustment Letter Granting a Claim Because the Transportation Company Is at Fault

Dear Sir:

After a careful investigation I am able to answer your letter of March 5 concerning the number of local messages sent over your telephone (Bigelow 8943) during the month of February, as indicated on your bill of March 1.

Local calls originating with your telephone are recorded by means of a message register, consisting of a mechanical device connected to your telephone line at the Central Office. Each local call is registered by this device upon completion of the message. A separate and distinct register is provided for each line, thus insuring subscribers against the possibility that calls made over one line are charged against another.

Only completed calls are registered. Uncompleted calls, such as those on which "busy" and "don't answer" is reported, are not registered. If a wrong connection is established and the operator's attention is called to it, the wrong connection is not registered.

A careful recheck of our records has been made without showing any error in the number of messages billed to you. We have tested the message register used on your line and have found it to be in proper working condition. We have also reviewed our reports of trouble during the month of February, but can find no record of trouble that in any way could have affected the registering of your calls.

Because of these facts, therefore, and also because of the accuracy of the registering device and the precautions observed in our operating practice, I believe that the charges to which you refer are correct and that they represent only the messages that were actually sent from your telephone.

I think you would be interested to visit one of our Central Offices and observe at first hand the complete handling of telephone calls. Any of our Business Offices will arrange the details of such a visit, or, if you like, I shall be pleased to make the arrangements.

Very truly yours,

Commercial Manager

Illustration 15. Adjustment Letter That Explains the Facts Fully and Refuses the Customer's Claim

PROBLEMS

1. Write a letter of application which answers the following advertisement:

Wanted—Man between 21 and 25, for inside selling. Must know clothes, be interested in eventual buyer's post, have training in selling and marketing, have personality. Apply with particulars to

XM—42 The Clarion

2. Write a letter of application which answers the following advertisement:

We need college men for summer work—want to sign the BEST now. Must be competent in math, free to travel, self-reliant, reliable, aggressive. Salary and traveling expenses.

Tudor Fact-Finding Service
267 West Newing Street
Cleveland, Ohio

3. Write a letter of application which answers the following advertisement:

Northern college man wanted as summer tutor for boy of thirteen. Requirements: ability to tutor in algebra, English, American history; directing knowledge of lake and woods sports and activities; sound character; experience with difficult boys. Compensation: $150 a month (June, July, August) and expenses, including traveling. Apply in detail.

Mrs. Lyle Ashburnham
3 Tree Lawn Terrace
Charlotte, North Carolina

4. Write an advertisement describing a full-time or part-time job for which you are now qualified, and in which you would be interested. Answer the advertisement by a letter.

5. Write an unsolicited letter of application for a summer job for which you are now qualified. Assume no previous knowledge of or experience with the prospective employer.

6. Assume that you are forced to leave college at the beginning of next month and find permanent employment. Write a letter of application that you could send to several similar companies. Assume no qualifications; write about yourself as you now are. Draw up a data form.

7. Assume that you are now completing your college course. Lay out and fill in the qualification form that you would use in trying to locate after-graduation employment.

8. Assume the point of view of a personnel director who received your letter for Problem 6. Write such a letter as his might be to the man whose name you gave as an experience reference.

9. Assume the point of view of the experience reference used in Problem 6. Answer the letter (Problem 8) that you have just received.

10. Lay out and write a general recommendation form (for all types of reference) to be used by the personnel manager written to in Problem 6. Write the letter that you would send with the form.

11. Lay out and write a recommendation form that could be used in connection with applications for the position of bookkeeper and store salesman in large chain filling stations. Prepare one form to be sent to former employers; another to be sent to character references.

12. Organize and write the data on an actual company that you might write to in Problem 6. Include all items that would affect the writing of the application letter.

13. Lay out and write a recommendation form that might be sent to your university by (a) a bank to which you had applied for a job as messenger, (b) a retail store to which you had applied for a job as an accountant, (c) a social welfare organization to which you had applied for a job as leader of boys' group activities.

14. Write to one of the references in Problem 6, asking permission to use his name.

15. Assume that you have secured the job applied for in Problem 5. Write to one of the references whose name you used.

16. Assume that you applied for but failed to get the position described in Problem 3. Write to one of the references whose name you used.

17. Assume that you are collecting data on the duties, responsibilities, and rewards of the manager of a college basketball team. Prepare a letter to be sent to nearby colleges asking for information.

18. Assume that you are collecting data on what constitutes a favorable location for a neighborhood drug store.
    (a) Prepare a letter of inquiry to be sent to 200 owners of neighborhood drug stores.
    (b) Prepare a letter of inquiry to be sent to ten owners of neighborhood drug stores, selected on the basis of length of operation and general success of the stores.

19. Assume that you are helping a younger brother select a college to attend. Write a letter to the registrar of a specific college asking for information that would not appear in the college catalog, or raising questions about information that does not appear in the college catalog.

20. Acknowledge the information received in answer to your letter in Problem 18.

21. Assume that you have had an interview with one of the personnel managers written to in Problem 6, and that he spent an hour talking with you. During that time he showed himself to be impersonal and businesslike, but you found out that he was a college classmate of your high school principal and that his hobby is golf, which he plays often and poorly. At the end of the interview he told you that he would notify you of his decision after he had conferred with an associate who would return from a business trip in eight days. Write a letter to followup the interview.

22. Assume that you are assistant to the general manager of the Brando Drug Corporation, a wholesale organization. Mr. H. S. Morris, manager of the Home Comfort Remedy Company, has complained about poor delivery service on his recent orders. The complaint letter concerns a rush order that Mr. Morris did not receive until ten days after the order was placed. Your letter to Mr. Morris is based on two facts. One is that because of an error his rush order was not approved by the credit department. The other is that a temporary press of business has made it impossible to give rush orders prompt attention. You are receiving approximately 1100 orders a day, instead of the normal 600. All orders are therefore slowed, although preference is being given to old customers, and your company is making every effort to fill orders promptly. Write a letter that states all of the facts and makes a convincing good-will appeal.

23. Three weeks ago the Brandt Tool and Machine Company received an order for Drill Press #207 from John Spear, Hilton, N. H. The order made no mention of any special delivery date, but the press was shipped exactly two weeks ago. You have just received a letter from Mr. Spear saying that he has not received the order and that unless it can be delivered within one week of the date of his letter, which was two days ago, he wants the order cancelled. Write to Mr. Spear and tell him that his order is not subject to cancellation, since his original letter did not specify any delivery date. This fact conforms to company policy, which is stated clearly on letterheads and invoices. State further that you are having the shipment traced. Add whatever may seem necessary and desirable to persuade the customer to accept the order willingly, even though it may arrive after the date that he has set.

24. Assume that you are a correspondent in the adjustment department of a local department store. You have received a letter from a woman charge customer who reports that a salesgirl in the coat department gave poor sales service and made insulting personal remarks. The letter does not give the name or any description of the salesgirl. Answer the letter.

25. Assume that you are the proprietor of a hardware store in a small city. A customer has called while you were out of the store and left an electric

iron in which the internal connections have been burned out. The customer wants the iron repaired without charge, since he believes it to be guaranteed, and wants it to be ready for use when he returns from his summer cottage in two weeks. Your records show that the iron was purchased fifteen months ago, and the guarantee is for twelve months. Write to the customer at his summer cottage and explain this. Offer to do the repair work for $2.50.

26. Assume that you are a correspondent in the adjustment department of the Walker Fence Company, which builds and installs garden and estate fences. You have been given the names of four customers who have done considerable business with your company but have not placed an order since the adjustment of claims concerning their last orders, all between one and two years ago. Write a letter that could be used for all four customers, trying to find out the reason for their not placing recent orders.

27. Assume that you are a photographer in a small city, specializing in society and special events pictures. You have read in the local newspaper that Mr. and Mrs. Carl Hoffman will celebrate their golden wedding in about a week. Write a sales letter that suggests anniversary photography.

28. Write a special sales letter for Hamilton and Holmes, a grocery company which prides itself on superior and expensive merchandise. The letter is to go to a carefully selected list of housewives in the upper income brackets, who are not regular customers. The letter is to go out ten days before Thanksgiving. It should suggest the spirit of the holiday, and should emphasize luxury items.

29. A woman customer of the Collins Electrical Company has just made her last payment on an electric refrigerator. The time payment plan has involved twelve payments, and all of them have been made at least three days before they were due. Write a letter of appreciation, and suggest the purchase of some other major piece of home equipment.

30. Assume that you are president of the Gaybar Club, an exclusive canoe and dance club on the Charles River. Write a spring letter to members, suggesting renewal of membership but also conveying personal greetings and individualized messages.

31. Write a stunt sales letter. Write a supplementary memorandum to your instructor, explaining (1) the merchandising situation, (2) the mailing list and the kind of people on it, (3) the desired effect of the letter, (4) the reasons why the reader should react favorably to it.

32. Assume that you are a correspondent in the collection department of an exclusive women's clothing store. A wealthy customer has just written to the company to complain that she has received unpleasant letters

about her overdue account. The records show that her charges total $200, covering purchases from January 15 to March 2. On April 1 your department sent her an itemized bill; on April 15 a form reminder; and on May 1 a carefully stated, courteous letter. It is now May 13. Write a letter that combines the functions of appeasing the customer and continuing the collection effort.

33. Write a routine collection letter to be used by an electric light company. Assume that credit terms of the company are payment within fifteen days of the submittal of the bill, and that the letter is to be used with accounts that are overdue thirty days beyond that point.

34. Assume that you are writing for the Chandler Book Company, which specializes in expensive sets of books, bought on time. Write two letters to be sent to customers who are not keeping up their payments.

35. Write a stunt collection letter. Write a supplementary memorandum to your instructor explaining (1) the circumstances in which it would be used, (2) how it would fit into a collection series, (3) the probable reaction of the readers, and the reasons for that reaction.

CHAPTER 4

Investigation Reports

An investigation report consists of condensed and summarized data. One of its most important characteristics is that it is a short cut for the person to whom it goes; he gets the facts without spending the time and energy necessary to locate, assemble, and organize them. Consequently, the investigation report often is used where the maximum of reporting efficiency can be accomplished by having one person or a group of persons do the actual investigating and reporting, while others use the result of that work.

The following material on report parts, form, and mechanics applies to business reports generally, as well as to the investigation report.

REPORT PARTS

The form of the business report varies considerably, depending not only on its type and length, but on company practice.

Reports may be classified as formal and informal.

The informal report is a memorandum or letter. It is commonly used internally from a subordinate to a superior or from one department to another. It is usually short, and begins with the customary memorandum heading. The letter form is frequently used when a report is short and simple, and is submitted to a reader in another company, or within the company but outside the local office. It is a business letter with report content, and may include several pages.

The formal report is systematically arranged, and more attention is given to appearance; it consists of separate parts, each of which is treated as a unit. The combination of parts varies. The following list includes all the possibilities, but only an elaborate report contains all of them.

Title Page or Cover

On the title page appear the identification of the writer, the reader, the subject, the date on which the report is submitted, and any other

necessary data. In addition, the title page gives the reader his first impression of the report. Consequently, it should be carefully laid out to present a clear, attractive appearance. If no established form is required, the writer can use his ingenuity and imagination.

It is particularly important that the title be well set up. The words should be grouped and the lines broken so that it can be seen and understood at a glance.

The illustration on page 104 shows some of the possibilities of arrangement and design of the report title page.

Letter of Submittal

The letter of submittal is in either letter or memorandum form, and is addressed to the individual or group to whom the report is submitted. If possible it should be kept to one page, for ease of reading. Since it sometimes is sent ahead of or separate from the report itself, the letter always should be written as a separate unit; that is, it should identify the report by title, number, or assignment, rather than by some such phrase as, This report.

One function of the letter of submittal is to indicate that the report has been completed and is being submitted. Sometimes it is important to remind the reader that the report is the fulfillment of an assignment which he may have forgotten; the letter brings it to his attention. Another purpose of the letter is to call attention in advance to parts of the report that the writer wants to emphasize before it is read—special items of material; conclusions; features of the preparation, such as experiments, trial runs, field trips, authorities consulted; limitation or expansion of the original assignment, made necessary as the assignment was being carried out.

The letter can also give credit to assistants, persons who have supplied information or materials, and others involved in the preparation of the report. If the report is prepared on the writer's initiative, the letter can justify it. It is an important device in the plan of the writer to make the report interesting and acceptable to the reader.

One advantage of the letter of submittal is that, with the exception of some types of summary, it is the only part of the report that is written in a personal style. Therefore topics can be discussed there which would be inappropriate in the report proper, since it should be objective and impersonal in style.

The letter of submittal on page 105 shows most of the characteristics and advantages discussed above. Notice that the letter is personal and direct, and that it builds up interest in the report in advance.

A SURVEY

of

POSSIBLE BILLBOARD LOCATIONS

Prepared by

William S. T. Higginson

Submitted

April 12, 1947

Prepared for

Executive Committee
Bond and Jones Company

Rock Wool Insulation

for Unit No. 76

by Walter S. Hubert

Date submitted
December 10, 1946

The Rand and Rand Company
Chicago, Illinois

CUSTOMER REACTIONS

to

WINDOW DISPLAYS

(A three-months' survey)

Research Department
Report No. 18C
March 2, 1947
Henry S. Bunker

Illustration 16

May 17, 1947

Frank H. Hill, President
The L. S. Starr Company
Malden 4, Massachusetts

Dear Mr. Hill:

I am submitting with this letter a report on the investigation which you assigned to me on April 10. You asked me to prepare a tentative program to build up and improve the public relations of The L. S. Starr Company.

I found it necessary to extend my investigation somewhat beyond the scope and detail which we discussed. You will therefore find some topics in the report which are not in the list that we worked out together.

Please notice in particular Section 3, in which I have made a suggestion that I believe will be especially effective, if it is put into operation. It is, I admit, an idea original with me. It therefore has the disadvantage of being untried, but it has two advantages—it is new, and it is inexpensive.

In preparing the material for this report, I was greatly assisted by Mr. Smith, who gave me useful information on the early history of the company; and Arthur Ball of the Streamline Art Service, who drew for me the sketches and designs in Section 3.

If you have any questions on the report, or if you want further information, I shall be glad to come to your office any time at your convenience.

Respectfully yours,

Paul S. Humbolt

Illustration 17

Summary

In many reports a summary can be used to present quickly the point and results of the whole.

It is most commonly used in the recommendation report. It is also used, however, in the complicated technical report in which a summary statement may be useful to the reader for later reference.

If possible it should be limited to one page, even if the lines must be single-spaced; otherwise it does not look like a summary.

The summary usually is placed in the report directly after the letter of submittal, but it may be placed after the table of contents. In the recommendation report, the summary statement of recommendation should be placed at the end if the recommendation is one with which the reader is likely to disagree. It usually is better tactics to lead up to and prepare for the antagonizing recommendation, before it is announced.

Table of Contents

In a long report, a table of contents has two advantages. It enables the reader to refer by page to any section of the report. A second advantage is that it indicates in tabular form the sections and phases of the treatment of the subject. Frequently the report reader looks over the table of contents, to see in advance if the report contains some section or kind of material which he believes should be included. Locating it in this way, he saves much thumbing through the text.

The table of contents is set up in the usual way, with the major phases and the important subdivisions listed with page references. It should list enough topics to give a clear idea of the extent and general content of the report.

Outline of Contents

A topic outline sometimes is used, either because the report is complicated, or because an outline has been required as a part of the assignment. It is, in effect, an elaborate table of contents, either with or without page references. If used, the outline should conform to the following requirements:

1. The topic statements should be limited to words and phrases.
2. The following symbol system may be used:

I.

A.

1.

a)

3. There always should be at least two topics in any group.

I.
   A.
   B.
II.
   A.
      1.
      2.
      3.
   B.

4. Grouped topics should be stated in parallel form (i.e., all nouns, all verbs, all adjectives, all phrases) and if possible the whole outline should be so stated.

Introduction

An introduction may be used to perform the same general function as that of the letter of submittal. It should be written in the third person, but it may state the method used in the preparation of the report, difficulties encountered, the most important sections of the report, a description of materials, machines, terms used, and so on.

An introduction should not be used unless it is really needed. As in other types of writing, the report introduction should not be a warming-up period for the writer. It must say things that are useful to the reader at an early point in the reading process.

Body

The bulk of any report is the body, or content, for which the earlier parts are reader preparation.

Conclusion

A conclusion, usually limited to one page, may be used for the statement of a summary, recommendation, or final comment. It may suggest additional work that could be done, in view of the results presented.

Appendix

An appendix is a catchall for material that is of supplementary importance, and is likely to delay or disrupt the reading process if it is placed in the body of the report.

Detailed data which the reader may want to refer to and study after he has read the report should be placed in the appendix.

Extensive quotations and reference summaries may be given in full in the appendix, and sections or single sentences used in the body of the report. Similarly, large and complicated charts, graphs, and tabula-

tions may be placed at the end; vital areas from them may be enlarged and used in the body of the report.

If the report is technical and the reader nontechnical, and if for some reason it is not desirable to explain or define technical terms used in the report, a glossary may be one section of the appendix.

Bibliography

If the preparation of the report has necessitated use of second-hand material, either written or oral, its use should be acknowledged in a bibliography. Like the appendix, the bibliography is of supplementary interest to the reader.

Index

In the long and complicated report, occasionally an index is used. It is a detailed, alphabetical list of the topics covered by the report content. If included, an index should be well made, it should be necessary, and it should be comprehensive enough to be useful to the reader.

REPORT FORM AND MECHANICS

One of the basic principles of business report writing is that a report should not be an essay or a theme, because of the conditions under which a report is read, and the purposes and values for which it is read. Typically, the business report is read hurriedly, or glanced over. The reader wants to get the general idea, or he wants to know what the conclusion or recommendation is, or he wants to locate and use a few significant facts, statements, or statistics. He is not interested in style, atmosphere, or color. He is interested in items of material, which he can find most easily and efficiently if the report is intelligently planned and set up, rather than just written.

The form and mechanics of the business report therefore must be taken into consideration in writing anything from a one-page memorandum to a long technical report.

The following devices suggest a general working plan and attitude which can be adapted to any report writing situation.

Headings and Labels

The sections and subdivisions of a report should be labeled carefully, appropriately, and clearly. If a table of contents or outline is used, the headings and labels should correspond to the topics listed there. Only major sections should be numbered, however, since additional numbers and letters only take up space on the page and suggest a more detailed relationship of parts than the reader can follow by symbols.

In a typed report, several styles of heading are possible; they vary in size, in conspicuousness of letter, and in position on the page. Although some company style books establish a definite combination for major and minor topics, most report writers can suit their own preferences. A writer should decide upon a system before he sets up his report. Then he should use the system consistently within one report, so that automatically the reader gets to expect a major section to follow a heading of one appearance, and a minor section or subdivision to follow a heading of another size and appearance.

The four possibilities listed below can be (1) centered on the page, (2) started flush with the left margin, (3) broken, double spaced, and carried down the left margin into the first paragraph of the section introduced.

1. *MAJOR UNITS OF EQUIPMENT*
2. MAJOR UNITS OF EQUIPMENT
3. *Major Units of Equipment*
4. Major Units of Equipment

Neither a period nor a colon should be used at the end of a sectional heading or label. Neither mark serves any purpose, since the heading is set off by itself with white space around it.

Lists

Whenever the writer uses a series of units of any kind, he should consider the advisability of listing them vertically on the page rather than in paragraph form. The advantages of the vertical listing are:

It breaks up the page, and provides variety in page appearance.

It emphasizes the items by making them conspicuous on the page.

It makes the items easy to check, to refer to later, or to memorize.

Naturally, this form of setup can be overdone. Lists should not be used so frequently that the pages look scattered and ragged. They should be used primarily for emphasis and variety.

A list can be introduced by a label, or it can be the last part of the sentence or paragraph that precedes it. Sometimes it is good mechanics to designate the items either by figures or letters.

Especially important in the listing of items is the fact that one item does not constitute a list and should not be numbered. Frequently an item of material can be emphasized by dropping it two spaces below the sentence that introduces it, and by centering it on the page. Since it is a single item, however, there is no point in labeling it; numbers or letters are used only to separate the units in a series and to place them in sequence.

The items in a list should be stated in parallel form; that is, *all* nouns, or adjectives, or phrases, or clauses.

New Section—New Page

Most business reports are divided into series of fairly short sections. Usually one of the aims of the writer is to get his reader to think of the material as made up of a series of sections following a definite plan or pattern of organization.

Consequently the reader should be induced to read and assimilate each section as a unit, and one means of accomplishing this result is to begin each section on a new page. This setup brings the section heading to the top of the page, and makes it conspicuous to the reader. It also makes the section easy to refer to (especially in the long, indexed report), since it breaks the report into definite sectional units.

Usually it is better to leave a half page empty than to start a new section on it. On the other hand, if a section ends near the top of a page with only two or three lines of text, a new section can be started on the same page but with a generous amount of white space between it and the preceding section.

Correlated Material on Facing Pages

An elementary but common deficiency in report mechanics is such arrangement that a chart or graph and the text explanation of it are on succeeding pages. The result is that the reader is referred to letters, lines, and numbers which he can look at only by turning a page.

If the material is short and simple, the graphic and written content should be kept on the same page. If it is elaborate, it should be on facing pages. In a report that is typed on one side of the paper, as almost all reports are, the disadvantages of two blank pages following two filled pages is a minor one; it is offset by the fact that the reader has before him, on a double-page spread, the two kinds of material which the writer has correlated and which he wants the reader also to correlate.

Short Paragraphs

The small section of the report content is the paragraph. Paragraphs should be short, so that the reader can assimilate each one easily and quickly, and can follow the sequence of material.

An important advantage of the short paragraph is that it breaks up the page. A page made up of five paragraphs looks easy to read; the same material in two paragraphs gives the impression of a heavy, loaded page. For that reason it sometimes is advisable to separate parts

of content units. The paragraph divisions should be at logical points, of course, and the reader should be able easily to follow the paragraph sequence.

Margins

Page margins should be kept as uniform as possible. The most commonly used margins are one and one-half inches for upper and left margins, and one inch for lower and right margins. If the report is to be bound in a folder or backer, the left margin should be increased to two inches.

It is especially important to avoid crowding the bottom of the page. Even footnotes should be kept above the margin.

Page Numbers

The pages of a report may be numbered in the upper right-hand corner, or in the center of the bottom margin.

Single Space—Double Space

Double spacing should be used as much as possible in typed reports, since double-spaced material looks better on the page and is easier to read. If it is desirable to limit the number of pages, or to get a unit or section of material on one page, the typing may be single spaced, with double spacing between paragraphs.

In double-spaced material, a quotation of several lines should be single spaced; in a single-spaced page, the quotation may be double spaced if it is important enough to be featured.

Varied Margins

Variety and attractiveness can be added to the appearance of the page if the margin width is varied from time to time. Quotations, simple tabulations, summary sentences, and other significant items of content can be emphasized by being written in short lines in the middle of the page, with wide margins.

Off-center Units

Since the report page should be thought of as a space in which material is to be displayed for the reader, the usual procedure of centering everything on the page can be varied. Units of material can be featured by being placed off center and written in a narrow column, flush with the right or left margin. A related possibility is a combination of two parallel, narrow columns for advantages and disadvantages, contrasting characteristics, or similar correlated material.

ROUTINE FIELD REPORT

A routine field report is prepared by an inspector, field worker, or agent, giving data needed by a superior or by a central office. It is used extensively in routine checking and inspection work, where the major requirement is to get specific data accurately and uniformly by a number of reporters, and repeatedly over a period of time. Usually it is an objective, factual report.

Three types of this report show up conspicuously in practice.

Standardized Memorandum

This type of routine field report usually is written on a special memorandum form, frequently with a heading identifying the department or kind of work involved, the number in a series, and similar checking or filing data. It is a plain summary statement by the reporter of the data that he has assembled. Its important qualities are simplicity, compactness, and objectivity.

The style in which the memorandum report is written depends considerably on the relationship between the reporter and the reader. Sometimes the relationship justifies and even calls for an informal or intimate style, with incidental personal comments; in other relationships the reporter is completely the objective, automatic recorder of facts.

Special Memorandum

In field investigations a special memorandum sometimes supplements or replaces the routine memorandum or report form. Its purpose is to handle as a separate issue some unusual factor or development in the data being reported. For example, a routine checking of one of a chain of stores may result in a factual report on current methods and conditions. If, in the process of assembling the necessary data, the reporter has come upon partial or implied evidence of inefficiency or mismanagement by the man in charge of the store, it is not his duty to add a statement to his report, giving an impression of suspicion. But he is likely to send to his superior a personal, semiconfidential memorandum in which he tells his impression, so that the superior can have it in mind and on file, not as an official routine report, but as an item of evidence to be used later, if necessary.

Standardized Report Form

The most common routine field report is the checking form; this can be used by many reporters in exactly the same way to cover a great many similar situations.

The sheet has the advantage of insuring uniformity and completeness of information, especially when it is assembled by several persons with differing standards, types of mind, and methods of working. It increases the efficiency of the reporter, since it guides his investigation; his only obligation is to follow the directions on the sheet, fill in the spaces or check off the items, and send in the completed report. Similarly, the sheet increases the efficiency of the receiver, particularly if reports come in from a number of investigators and must be correlated and coordinated. A well-prepared report form facilitates the mechanics of filing, recording, tabulating, and interpreting the information.

The report sheet should be complete from the receiver's point of view. While it is being made up and before the arrangement is considered final, every effort should be made to ascertain if all necessary items are included, and that the format is the best possible. It is poor sheet planning, and consequently poor reporting, to send out supplementary instruction memorandum or to be forced to discard and revise the sheet frequently.

From the reporter's point of view, the form should be easy to use. The checker or inspector usually goes about from spot to spot and takes down data as he goes along. His efficiency and effectiveness are increased if the report form is carefully correlated with his actual progress on the job.

A definite and planned organization of items is an important characteristic of the routine report sheet. The items may be organized in space order, if the routine is one in which the reporter moves from place to place and gathers his data during his progress. An inspection of a building, for example, is a physical progress through the building. Another possibility is time order, used when the reporting routine develops as time passes, rather than as the reporter moves about. In many reports, items are arranged in order of importance. Finally, grouping of related items is important; since it systematizes the inspector's work on the job, he gives his undivided attention to one kind of data at a time.

Most efficient sheets reduce writing to a minimum, and consist of small spaces rather than large areas to be filled in. The large area not only imposes unnecessary work on the reporter, but the empty space seems to obligate him; he feels an unconscious compulsion to fill it, even if to do so he must pad the slight data that he has obtained.

Four devices useful to the arrangement of the report sheet are: (1) short lines to be filled in after listed items, (2) spaces to be filled in briefly, (3) multiple-choice checking spaces, (4) questions to be answered.

The format used depends, of course, on the material involved and the way in which it is organized. A common combination is a series of specific, detailed items that hold the reporter down to brief wordage and least physical activity, and a space to be filled in with supplementary data and comments.

PLANT VISIT REPORT

For a great variety of purposes, written reports are used to record and submit the results of special inspection and investigation trips. A plant visit report is the result of a field trip or inspection visit to a factory, store, warehouse, company department, or construction project. The report contains material that the reporter has assembled by observation and investigation, and usually it is written objectively and submitted without a conclusion or recommendation. Sometimes, however, the purpose of the report is to work out a recommendation or an analysis, which can best be written from the personal point of view.

A plant visit report may be an extensive general survey, designed to obtain comprehensive data on stocks of materials, complete equipment, layout and arrangement of materials and equipment, or even general and detailed appearance. A second kind of report is limited to the investigation of a special topic. Its purpose is to present data on safety devices used in a production department; lighting equipment; sanitation equipment and regulations; a particular type or model of machine; the use of a special system in production, records, sales; or some other phase of a company's activity. The type and nature of any report usually depend on the specifications of the assignment, since normally the reporter writes it on order from a superior.

The preparation of a plant visit report can best be thought of as in three time phases. Except in unusual circumstances it is not a difficult report to formulate. It may be specialized and technical, but if so it will be assigned to a specialist. The weak points in plant visit report procedure come not so much from the inherent difficulty involved as from lack of planning; small errors and deficiencies can be accounted for only by the fact that the reporter is not working systematically. Method of procedure, therefore, is particularly important.

Planning in Advance of the Visit

Inefficiency and poor reporting can be avoided by careful planning well in advance of the actual visit. The reporter should be sure of the objective of his visit; that is, he should know why he has been asked to go to get the specified information. Commonly this will be clear from

INSPECTION DEPARTMENT • ASSOCIATED FACTORY MUTUAL ◆ FIRE INSURANCE COMPANIES • 184 HIGH ST., BOSTON, MASS.

LOSS REPORT

Type of Loss ..... No. .....
Reported to Cos. ..... Pl. Co. .....
Conferred with .....

Property of .....
Index No. .....
District .....
Inspected by / *Reported by* .....
At ..... *On* .....

DATE OF LOSS Day, Date, Time (Standard)

LOCATION Building, Story, Room—as given on Insurance Plan

DISCOVERY When and by whom? Was automatic alarm a factor?

OCCUPANCY State process, material stored, or non-manufacturing occupancy

CONSTRUCTION — No. of Stories; construction of walls, floors, roof, roofing, etc.

DAMAGE TO: Building

Contents

SPRINKLERS — Number opened; name and type of heads and year mfd.; wet or dry system?

PIPING — Extent of breakage

OTHER APPARATUS USED Hose streams—No. and size of nozzles; first aid apparatus; public department?

WIND — Squalls, Gale, Hurricane, Tornado? Direction and max. 5 min. velocity. Rain, snow, hail preceding, during, or after loss? Distance and direction to observatory?

PROTECTION RESTORED Date and Time when sprinklers were replaced and full fire protection restored

CAUSE

FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO EXTENT OF DAMAGE

CLASSIFICATION

LOSS ESTIMATE: $ (Preliminary estimate—not binding. Other insurance?) **Adjusted at — $**

Describe occurrence below, giving all information of value, lessons taught, and improvements suggested by this experience.
Also **draw a sketch** showing location, extent of damage, and points of compass.

Illustration 18. Report Sheet (Reproduced by Courtesy of The Associated Factory Mutual Fire Insurance Companies)

the nature of the assignment, or will be stated in an assignment memorandum, letter, or conference. If it is not apparent it should be determined, either by the reporter's own reasoning, or by a well-timed and well-phrased question to the superior who made the assignment.

The data necessary to carrying out the assignment and accomplishing the objective should be considered, along with the specific, likely sources of that data and the methods by which it best can be assembled. In general the possible sources are (1) direct personal observation, (2) interviews with workers, (3) interviews with superiors, supervisors, executives, (4) photographs, sketches, diagrams made on the spot, (5) printed material at the place being visited on the subject being investigated. It is only good sense to decide in advance what source or combination of sources will be necessary, and to plan in terms of those sources. For example, if sketching or photographing is to be done, the reporter should make the plant visit equipped with his own materials; if it is desirable to have an interview with a particular man, it is the reporter's responsibility to find out in advance if that man will be available and cooperative.

Preparation for the visit is not too detailed if it includes the listing of topics to be covered by the report, the details to be looked for, the exact questions to be asked in interviews. This kind of preparation saves time during the visit, and forestalls the incompleteness of data that comes from confusion and forgetfulness during the visit itself.

If the subject being investigated depends at all on lighting conditions, time of day, high point or low point of plant activity, seasonal conditions, or any similar factors, exact planning and checking should be done by the reporter to make sure that his visit will not be a wasted trip because "conditions aren't right today but they will be tomorrow."

Making the Visit

Because the scenes and the personnel of the plants visited vary widely, few general rules and policies can be established. Personal relations, however, always are important. The reporter should remember that he is an outsider, and a guest of the company or organization from which he is getting the information. He should be alert to the reactions and intimations of the people with whom he talks (the universal languages) and should make sure that he is conducting himself in a way that is a credit to himself and to the organization from which he came. Even if he enters the plant well endorsed and by appointment, he is showing bad manners if he wastes time and keeps people from their work longer than is necessary.

Another factor that always applies is the necessity of making sure

that the data are complete, accurate, and well balanced before the visit is terminated. The reporter is at a disadvantage and should be embarrassed if he finds that he must make a second visit or write a letter to get information that he should have obtained while he was on the scene. Balanced data are required when there is likely to be a difference of impression, opinion, and reaction. If the reporter is collecting data on a newly installed tabulating machine, for example, the head of the department may say that the machine is an unqualified success, and he may produce time study records to prove its efficiency and productivity; but the man who operates the machine may point out qualifications that the head of the department either does not know about or prefers to ignore. Obviously, the reporter has not done his job if he talks with the head of the department but not with the operator of the machine; he must talk with both of them, and he must do it while he is on the scene. Then he must use his own judgment and balance the conflicting data.

Reporting the Results of the Visit

The purpose of the plant visit report is to give the reader approximately the same information and impression that he would have received if he had made the investigating trip in person. This purpose must be kept in mind as the reporter selects, organizes, and writes his material.

The form of the report may be one of many. The report may be given orally if a written one would be inefficient, and burdensome to all concerned. If the report is written, it may be a simple summary memorandum; or it may be a formal report with a letter of submittal, outline, introduction, conclusion, or recommendation (if called for by the assignment), and other parts; or it may take some form between these two extremes. Organization of material is important and usually falls into the same pattern or plan that the reporter followed while he was conducting the visit.

Space order is useful to create the impression that the reader is accompanying the writer through the scene visited. A description of the arrangement of a department is best treated in the order of the reporter's progress through it. This sequence enables the reader to visualize each section in logical order, and thus form a mental picture of the complete department.

Order of importance applies to material that varies in importance to the reader. In working out this plan, the writer should evaluate his material, keeping in mind the reader and his interests and desires, as reflected by the assignment and by the reporter's knowledge of him.

For example, the report may cover a machine. The reporter's assignment may require data on size, ease of operation, cost, efficiency, variety of work produced, and special advantages. Even though the assignment may call for general coverage of all phases, the reporter may know that cost and efficiency are the phases of most interest to the man for whom the report is made. Logically, then, he should begin his report with those two phases, and probably treat them in more detail than the others.

Order of discovery as a general organization plan applies usually to theoretical or idea material. If a reporter is sent to find out employees' attitudes toward a policy or condition, he picks up ideas, impressions, and facts of varying importance as he conducts his investigation and goes from employee to employee. To report his findings effectively he may want to recreate the conditions and atmosphere, and the best way to accomplish that result may be to summarize the information as he found it, not in order of its importance as information.

In preparing the finished report, the writer should take care to observe several important factors of form and procedure. Most of them are more important from the reader's point of view than from that of the writer, and for this reason are easily neglected or poorly done.

It is important to indicate, by phrasing or by footnotes, the sources of important items of data. The reporter thereby acknowledges his indebtedness for materials, and equally important, he clears himself of partisanship and responsibility if the data is dubious, unsound, or controversial.

If the report calls for conclusions and recommendations, they should be stated conservatively. It is easy to become overenthusiastic in the process of an investigation, and to include in the report generalizations and optimistic interpretations that are not justified by the facts.

Frequently an executive wants to find out if a rival company is doing things better or has better equipment than his. In a report of this type the writer should be conservative and impartial, and should make no attempt to prove that the company investigated is either inferior or superior to his own. Nevertheless, the writer should bear in mind the temperament and probable reactions of the man for whom the report is written.

Supplementary data such as pamphlets, photographs, and diagrams always should be included if they are essential to the clarity of the report. When reference is made to physical equipment, graphic illustrations are likely to be useful. They should be well prepared, clearly labeled, and placed in the report either adjacent to the text relating to them, or at the end if they are supplementary reference items.

Arrangement of material is important to the plant visit report, as to other types of report. The report should be easy to read and to refer to. Lists, headings, outlines, labels, and underlines reinforce organization and style as devices for facilitating comprehension.

FACTUAL SURVEY REPORT

More generalized than the plant visit report, the factual survey report summarizes the results of a factual investigation of one or more independent or related subjects. The subject may be physical, as in the plant visit report; or it may be both physical and intangible, as a general survey of a company, a department, or a system of procedure. The reporter's function is to assemble, correlate, and condense data; usually he does not interpret the material or formulate a recommendation.

The report often is used as the basis of analysis and recommendation. Because different groups have different responsibilities and authority, it may happen that one group makes a survey to assemble the facts of a problem, and another group plans policy and procedure by making use of the survey which has been prepared.

The person or group working on a factual survey report must know its limits, purpose, and responsibilities. It is important to know, also, whether the report is an end in itself or whether it will be used in connection with some large project or investigation.

The two devices of report writing which apply most particularly here are *general organization* and *sectioning*. The plan or organization usually conducts the reader from simple and general statements to the complex and specific aspects of the subject. The advantage of this order is that the reader is given a general background and orientation before he is given the details and the complexities.

Sections of the report should be organized and so set up that the reader can easily identify different kinds and parts of material, and can efficiently refer back to sections and items for later checking. A table of contents, an index, section summaries as well as a report summary, new pages for new sections are mechanical devices that assist the reader in using the report and in assimilating the body of information.

The following two tables of contents illustrate a variety of factual survey reports, and possibilities of organization.

CONTENTS

History of the Company
Management
Field and Scope of Operations
Examination Detail

Financial Statement
Discussion of Assets
Discussion of Liabilities
Capital Stock
Dividends
Income and Disbursements
Underwriting and Investment Exhibit
Conclusion
Tabulations and Schedules

Real Estate
Bonds and Stocks
Cash in Banks and Trust Companies

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Preliminary Considerations
Initial Cost of Machines

Douglass
Bunker System
Taylor

Operation Factors

Douglass
Bunker System
Taylor

Special Features

Douglass
Bunker System
Taylor

Tabulation of Data
Conclusion
Diagrams and Photographs

RESEARCH REPORT

Under varying circumstances and for differing purposes, the term *research* is used with different meanings and connotations. In business activity and in technical report writing it usually has several distinguishing and limiting characteristics.

Most important, research should be thought of as *creative*, rather than merely *reproductive*. An investigation that involves finding, correlating, and summarizing facts and theories may be valuable and difficult work; it may result in a new combination of the facts and theories. Strictly, however, it is not research, because instead of being creative it is reproductive, since the materials used already exist and are only arranged in a new relationship for the purposes of the report. On the

other hand, use of existing materials as the basis of working out a new theory or conclusion constitutes research. Research also involves factual and theoretical analysis of a high order, and it makes a contribution to the total body of knowledge of the subject being treated.

The research worker must have extensive training in the standards, objectives, and techniques of that branch of business, and of the particular company conducting the research. Probably his most important qualification is creative research ability, which is made up of a high level of general intelligence and a thorough background of specific scientific knowledge; the ability to think and to conduct the processes of analysis and synthesis; attitudes of objectivity, impartiality, and scientific perspective; good judgment and common sense; and, finally, intuition and imagination to see possibilities and to make the most of them.

It follows from this description of the research worker that research in the best sense cannot be conducted by just any business worker, but is automatically restricted to individuals with the necessary special endowment and training.

Research Procedure

In business or in any other field of activity, research is a broad, long-range procedure involving well-defined steps and phases.

The starting point is the establishment of the exact nature of the problem to be solved. It is particularly important to set the limits of the problem, so that the work will not go off on tangents after it is started. If more than one person is engaged on the project, there should be agreement as to the nature and limits of the work of each. Since a certain amount of investigation has been done on almost any topic that a researcher is likely to be assigned to, it is necessary to determine what has been done, so that the results can be made use of to best advantage. An early step, therefore, is to locate and to become familiar with all previous work done on the same problem.

Sources of Material

Common sources of research material are: personal observation by the research worker or the research group; personal investigation through organized, systematic fact finding; related research, in the form of books, pamphlets, technical articles; authoritative theory, to be found in books and technical articles; survey data, usually gathered by sampling and questionnaire methods; original thinking that supplements, reinforces, and synthesizes data from all other sources. In any specific research project several sources are combined and used.

Method

The general method of research that applies to a project usually is self-evident, but always it is necessary to consider the best possible combination of the three general research techniques, descriptive, theoretical, experimental.

Descriptive research is an original investigation based on observation and analysis of the materials.

Theoretical research is a correlation of theory and practice. In general it is paper and desk work, rather than field work.

Experimental research uses a wide range of techniques. Small-scale results are projected into a comprehensive conclusion or recommendation.

Research must be carried out according to a predetermined plan. If several workers are engaged on the project, the plan must include a division and delegation of responsibility.

Important to the research worker's own thinking is an early forecast of the probable progress and results of the project. He should be able to visualize in advance the probable developments, problems, and obstructions. The danger of this forecast is that it may result in an unconscious prejudice one way or another; the worker may bend every effort toward making it come out that way. Such prejudice is, of course, unsound, since it handicaps or even eliminates the objective perspective that should characterize all scientific work.

If the preliminary factors are established, the major part of the research work is systematized and somewhat simplified in advance.

Business Research

Business research is directed toward two general ends: establishment of theories and principles useful to the understanding of the fundamental characteristics of business; and solution of practical business problems. On one hand is the research that established the recognized facts of supply and demand; on the other is the research conducted before a manufacturer decides upon the location for a new factory.

A written report of the results of business research is presented in either statistical or prose summary form. The statistical business research report is a presentation of data, often financial, which have been scientifically appraised and analyzed. Its general purpose is to show past and present activities as revealed by statistics. The prose summary business research report is a written condensation of material that has been accumulated by research. Like the statistical report, it

gives authoritative and conclusive knowledge of the past and the present. In addition it often includes a recommendation as to plan and procedure for the future. Necessarily the two types of report overlap in use.

Since the statistical report requires little writing except for summaries, conclusions, and some incidental explanations, it is outside the scope of this discussion. The prose summary report, however, is one of the more advanced, complicated, and variable forms of business writing. The form of the report to executives commonly is used.

Report to Executives

The report to executives presents for executive consideration and adoption a recommendation that has been arrived at by research methods. It concerns the future planning, policy, or procedure of the company, or of a department within the company. The report may be prepared by an outside research worker or members of the company research department; it may be made on executive assignment or at the initiative of the writer.

Report Form. The form of the report to executives is variable. It depends on whatever traditions and established procedures exist in the company in which the report is prepared, and also on the relationship between writer and reader. It therefore may be an informal memorandum or a formal, organized report, depending in part on the extent and complexity of the material. Frequently the report is semi-oral; that is, a brief written report which is presented in person and expanded orally.

A number of details of procedure and use of material are important, in view of the fact that the purpose of the report is to present a well-grounded recommendation, and to make it acceptable to the reader.

In general, the executive wants to know the recommendation and the essential facts that support and justify it. Consequently, the report should be short enough to be read and understood easily and quickly; but long enough to be clear, complete, and convincing. Number of pages is not so important as the writer's use of his knowledge of the executive's type of mind, background in the subject, ways of responding and reacting.

A modified letter of submittal commonly is used when the report is not submitted in person. A submittal statement, even as an introductory paragraph in a memorandum report, can be convincing and persuasive. It may be so written as to reflect the quality of the writer's work, and thus help to gain an early acceptance by the reader of the validity of the findings. In a few statements it may imply reader benefit or reader

value to be found in the report, stimulating advance interest in his mind.

The recommendation and the summary of supporting material should be made the focal point of reader interest. These are what the executive wants from the report; everything else is merely supplementary. If, on the basis of past experience and association, the executive has confidence in the reporter's work, he is likely to give his complete attention to the recommendation, and to take for granted the soundness and completeness of the supporting material. Consequently, special attention should be given to the recommendation and summary, not only as to content and statement, but as to form and use.

If possible the recommendation should be stated on one page, so that the reader has before him on one sheet of paper the essentials of the report. Many readers like one single-spaced page better than a recommendation that runs over to a second page.

Usually the recommendation should be placed at the beginning of the report, for conspicuousness, accessibility, and emphasis. Under some conditions, however, it should be placed at the end. If its content is controversial, if it is likely to antagonize or displease the reader, or to divert his attention to side issues, the better policy is to present the factual, supporting material, and to lead up to the recommendation. The desired reader reaction here is agreement with individual facts and factors, building up to agreement with the recommendation.

It is particularly important that the report should be well arranged. The details depend somewhat on company form and procedure, but even more on the standards and reactions of the executive to whom the report is made. Some men like reports double spaced, for ease of reading. Others like thin reports, and it is sound practice to single space the material so that the report will not be bulky. Wide margins and section spacing spread the material out and make it easy to read, and provide adequate space in which the reader can jot down notes, comments, and questions that he wants to take up later with the reporter. Labels and headings are useful for breaking up solid pages, identifying sections so that the reader can tell in advance what the material is, and for emphasizing factors of major importance to the reader.

Graphic communication is useful in this type of report because the material presented must be closely condensed, but often it is difficult to abridge material without obscuring its meaning. Graphic presentation should be carefully adapted to the reader's background and understanding, and to his likes and dislikes.

Style and Emphasis. Since the report to executives contains a recommendation which the writer believes should be adopted and put into

operation, it is essential that the report be convincing. Although it cannot be argumentative and high-pressure and still be objective and scientific, it must use all reasonable methods to build up an acceptable case.

The method of making a proposal acceptable to the reader depends on the writer's knowledge of the executive's background and career, his general business beliefs and policies, his attitude toward the subject being reported on. That knowledge should be used to convince the reader by logical methods, and persuade him by emotional and semi-emotional means. Conviction comes, of course, from the soundness of the factual material used. Usually business subjects handled by research methods are not susceptible of emotional treatment. But possibilities frequently exist, if the reporter knows his reader, and uses sufficient ingenuity. For example, if the executive has strong pride in the public reputation of the company, and if he likes the recommended action because it will enhance the prestige of the company, primarily he is being *persuaded* that the recommendation is acceptable and desirable. Such possibilities are limited and no authentic research worker will trade on his reader's weaknesses and whims to get approval of a proposal. At the same time, if the worker has become convinced by his own findings that the proposal is necessary to company prestige, efficiency, or general success, then his obligation is to do his best to see that the proposal is accepted and endorsed by the necessary executives. If they can be affected by persuasion as well as by conviction, persuasion becomes a useful part of the reporter's technique.

Because the report to executives usually deals with a change or an improvement, it is necessary to emphasize the undesirable or unsatisfactory conditions that the proposal is designed to improve. This comparison and contrast inevitably involves a negative emphasis that is difficult to handle. The vice-president who organized and ran the bookkeeping department forty years ago may believe that the department still is not only modern and efficient, but perfect. If he receives a report that demonstrates that the bookkeeping methods are hopelessly inefficient and oldfashioned, he is likely to reject the charge, and to dislike the report of which it is a part. It is useful when presenting critical, unpleasant material to balance it by emphasizing pleasant, positive factors. It is good judgment to lead up to the criticism and soften it in advance. The proposal can be offered, not as a revolutionary wiping out of bad conditions, but as an improvement made possible by the sound and careful work of the past. Sometimes all that is needed is an elaboration of the theme, *These factors are satisfactory and cannot be improved, but other factors can be improved in the following ways.* Another way to make criticism acceptable is to avoid dogmatic, over-

positive statements, particularly about personnel. There is a great difference between saying, *The head of the department is uncooperative and inefficient*, and, *The evidence indicates that there is some inefficiency in the management of the department*. Such qualifying phrases as, *It seems probable that*, and, *It may be*, often take the curse off a statement that is actually an accusation. The negative implication is still there, but it is softened by the qualification; and the basis for a violent reaction and disagreement has been toned down.

The illustrations on pages 128–147 show many of the characteristics already discussed. It is impossible to reproduce, or to secure the release of, enough examples to illustrate all phases of business research.

PROBLEMS

1. Analyze a standardized report sheet to determine its probable effectiveness. Write a memorandum report endorsing the sheet, or suggesting changes and improvements.

2. Write a plant visit report on a business situation with which you are familiar. Assume a particular reader and a definite assignment. Define your objective carefully, and in your letter of submittal make clear both the objective and the assignment.

3. Write a plant visit report on a local college area such as: a library, laboratory, lunch room, check room, reading room, heating plant. Address your report to an official in another college, who is conducting a general survey of college facilities. The report should include (1) complete factual data, (2) advantages and disadvantages, and (3) suggestions and recommendations. Include at least one graphic item.

4. Plan and organize a factual survey report on a business company with which you are familiar. Assume that the report is to give complete coverage of the company, and is being prepared for a man who knows nothing about the company, but is considering purchasing it.

   Prepare a letter of submittal and a topic outline of report contents. In planning the outline, decide what phases of the company should be covered by the report, and be sure to outline all of them.

   Develop in writing two sections of the topic outline, as representative of what the whole report would be if it were completely developed.

5. Prepare a factual survey report on two or more similar business situations with which you are familiar. The subjects may be related to equipment, procedure, personnel, or policy. Organize and set up the data to show points of similarity and points of contrast. End with a summary or conclusion section, but do not make a recommendation. Be sure to keep your point of view objective and impartial.

6. Organize and plan a research project on a subject of your choice. Prepare a preliminary report designed to get executive approval of the project before it is started. Cover the following items: (1) subject, (2) method of procedure to be followed, (3) sources of data, (4) personnel and money necessary for starting and carrying out the project, (5) significance and value of the project.

   Write a supplementary memorandum explaining what you have done to make this report an effective report to executives. Give special attention to the methods and devices you have used to make the proposal attractive and acceptable to the reader. Describe the reader whom you have in mind as the executive who would receive the report, and explain how you have written the report for him as a person.

STORE #702 114 SMITH STREET, EAST ALBANY

Summary and Recommendations

It has been suggested that the Service Combination store on Smith Street, East Albany, be converted to a Self-Service store.

The Market Research Department recommends that no change be made at present, and that the present personnel be given a chance to rebuild the store.

Conversion to Self-Service is not recommended for the following reasons:

1. The store is not large enough for a combination Self-Service store, and might require a high payroll to operate.
2. It is questionable whether a cash-and-carry operation would be successful in such a location, since a large proportion of the present volume is delivery business. The store has only about $100 in credit accounts, all of which is supposed to be good.
3. The store was remodeled in August and considerably improved in appearance and serviceability.
4. The present personnel seem competent and aggressive. The manager is constantly soliciting customers and should be able to build up his trade because of knowledge of the neighborhood.
5. Conversion might attract some supermarket customers who now travel to Albany, but any gain from Albany Public Market or Superior Super Market customers might be offset by a loss of trade at our store on Exchange Street, Albany.
6. Although conversion to a Self-Service store might raise the volume of the store, it is believed that continuance of the store in the Service Division will result in a better profit showing.

Analysis of the Location

Store #702 is isolated, about four-tenths of a mile from the Service Combination on Eddy Street, where the nearest competitive chain stores also are located, and is a short distance from the Crosstown Bridge and the Power Plant.

The trading area probably is restricted to the immediate vicinity of the store, because of the "patchy" nature of the population distribution in East Albany, and because of the proximity of the other store. Many of the people in the neighborhood work in the Allison-Sharpe Foundry, which is at present booming and paying good wages. The new Martin and Johnson plant going up nearby probably will contribute to the stability and prosperity of the neighborhood.

Illustration 19. Research Report to Executives

Average Sales and Net Profits of the store have been as follows:

	Ave. Weekly Meat Sales	Ave. Weekly Total Sales	Net Profit	%
1945-46	$511	$1791	$1977	2.1
1946-47	513	1654	960	1.1
July-Sept. 1947	435	1353	(149)*	0.8*

* ... Loss

The store is small, about 35' x 80', and has no cellar. Stocks of bag coal and other bulk items are stored in a small store room two doors away.

The poor performance of the store at present is partly attributable to customer resentment at the discharge last May of a well-liked manager who had a series of poor inventories. The present manager has had the store only a few weeks. He is a life-long resident of East Albany and a ten-year employee of our company. He has worked mostly in the various stores in East Albany, and this is the first store he has really managed where he had a chance to do a good job.

Market Research Department
November 23, 1947

Illustration 19. Research Report to Executives (Continued)

INTRODUCTION

The Company's Post-War Planning Committee has outlined the following questions regarding potential post war products:

1. What products are included in this field?
2. What is the total normal volume of each?
3. What proportion of this total should Clark reasonably expect to get?
4. What companies are engaged in production in this field, and what is the nature of the competition?
5. Is the Magee Company now operating in this field? (If so, to what extent, and what is their experience?)
6. Have we natural advantages in this field from the standpoint of location, quality or quantity of labor, availability of raw materials, access to markets, experience of our present personnel?
7. What facilities have we now for production in this field?
8. What additional facilities would we need?
9. What complications would the addition of these products make in our plant setup, processes, storage facilities, etc.?
10. What products have we previously made in this field?
11. What engineering, designing or development work must we do on the products in this field before they can be put into production? When and how should this work be scheduled?
12. How would these products be sold?
13. Would they utilize any part of our present distribution organization?
14. What has been our profit record with this sort of product?

This report presents such data as were available regarding sponge rubber from company files, Bureau of Census reports and trade directories in the company's library applying to questions—

1—Sponge Rubber
2—The Market
4—Competition

SPONGE RUBBER

The Manufacturers' Association divides its statistics regarding industrial sponge rubber into two groups—

Chemically blown
and
Foamed latex

but in the Census of Manufactures and in most of the listings of sponge rubber and its products this distinction is not made.

Illustration 20. Research Report

Trade directories list manufacturers offering sponge rubber in these forms—

Gummed sponge rubber sheets
Sheets
Sponge rubber combined with curled hair
Strips

but most of the listings were of sponge rubber products and uses--

Anti-squeak pads
Arch supporting devices and foot comfort appliances
Arm rests (automobile)
Automobile sponge rubber
Balls
Bath mats
Chair cushions
Clothes brushes
Die cut specialties
Dolls
Ear pads
Erasers
Flexible mouth pieces
Caskets
Guards
Horse neck pads
Industrial sponge rubber
Insoles
Kneeling pads
Mattresses
Molded specialties
Novelties
Pads for chairs, seats, cushions, etc.
Railroad equipment sponge rubber
Refrigerator packing
Rug cushions

Specialties (Miscellaneous)
Sponges for—Automobiles
Bank tellers' and cashiers' cups
Bathing
Bottles
Cleansing
Cups (sealing)
Floors
Hats
Sponge rubber for flexible box dies
Toys
Upholstery
Vibrator discs
Wall sponges and cleansers
Windlace tubing

The market for sponge rubber and its products, of which there are no doubt more than those just listed, is large and was expanding rapidly before 1942.

Illustration 20. Research Report (Continued)

COFFEE TABLE PRICE TEST

The Facts

Folding coffee tables were sold as premiums in 8 typical stores during the 2 weeks ended September 13, 1941 as a test to determine whether they should be sold in the company as a whole at $.99 or at $1.19. In all of the stores, customers were required to purchase one pound of private label coffee with the coffee table premium.

The test stores were chosen to represent variations in customer income and in type of community as far as possible. Tables were sold at each of the test prices in 2 Self-Service stores, 1 Service Combination, and 1 Service Grocery store.

Results

1. During the 2 weeks, the 8 stores combined sold 361 tables—or 1.5 tables for each $100 Grocery Sales.

2. Stores selling the tables at $.99 sold almost twice as many tables per $100 Grocery Sales as did the $1.19 stores.

Price Group	No. of Tables	Ratio to $100 Groc. Sales
$ .99 Stores	229	2.0
1.19 Stores	132	1.1
Totals	361	1.5

3. The ratio of tables sold to $100 Grocery Sales was 4 times larger for the Service stores than for the Self-Service stores.

Type Store	No. of Tables	Ratio to $100 Groc. Sales
Service Stores	195	3.6
Self-Service Stores	166	0.9
Totals	361	1.5

4. All types of stores sold more tables during the second week of the test than during the first week.

Type Store	1st Week	2nd Week	Total
$.99 Stores	99	130	229
1.19 Stores	49	83	132
Service Stores	72	123	195
Self-Service Stores	76	90	166

Illustration 20. Research Report (Continued)

5. Stores serving poor income areas sold more tables than stores in fair income areas regardless of price.

Store No.	Table Price	Income	Tables Sold	Ratio to $100 Groc. Sales
149	$.99	Poor	80	1.6
45	.99	Fair	41	1.4
11	1.19	Poor	25	0.6
38	1.19	Fair	20	0.4
315	1.19	Poor	69	7.3
402	.99	Fair	36	3.1

(The Service Combination Stores have been excluded from this table since both serve fair income areas.)

6. It is not possible as yet to determine whether coffee sales have been increased as a result of the premium offer. Several managers reported, however, that strangers had been attracted to the stores and had purchased private label coffee to obtain the premium.

Conclusions

1. During the second week of the test, sales were greater than those of the first week. It is not known whether a further increase would result from a longer period or whether sales possibilities were largely exhausted in these first weeks.

Managers in several of the more successful stores felt that they had reached most of their regular customers during the 2-week period.

2. It is believed that rapid turnover of the coffee table premium is important to cut down expenses arising from transfer of merchandise and breakage in the stores and in transfer.

3. Assuming that the ratios of coffee table sales to $100 Grocery Sales found in the test stores were approximately representative of the company as a whole, and that the tables were distributed in accordance with the sales possibilities of the various types of stores, it should be possible to move the bulk of the 15,000 tables owned by the company in about 3 weeks at the $.99 price.

On the same basis, movement of the majority of the tables at $1.19 would take at least 5 weeks.

4. Since it is felt that sales possibilities of the coffee tables are greatest during the first 3 weeks and that it is better to clean up this premium as rapidly as possible, it is recommended that the price be set at $.99.

RFS/CHS

Market Research Dept.
September 17, 1941

Illustration 20. Research Report (Continued)

Merchandising Suggestions

Following are comments and suggestions that may be helpful in merchandising the coffee tables.

Comparable Products

1. A similar table costs over $3.00 in Boston furniture stores. (Dorchester customer)
2. A Billerica shop sells comparable tables for $1.50 (Billerica customer.)
3. Lane's Furniture Warehouse has coffee tables for about $1.40. (Reported seen in newspaper ad.)

Customer Comments

1. Excellent as living room ornament.
2. Like variety of uses —as table, ornament, fire screen.
3. Like compactness of table.
4. Like pattern and resistance to stains.

Store Comments

1. Several people bought a number of tables to put away for presents.
2. One customer bought 6 for whist party prizes.
3. Managers felt that they could sell more tables per customer if there were a variety of designs.
4. Many customers examined the tables, went home to think it over, and purchased tables on a subsequent visit, often during the weekend when other members of the family had a chance to inspect the tables.

Display Suggestions

1. Whenever possible, all tables should be displayed. In a number of stores with limited floor space, excess tables can be stored on the window shelf in back of the display fixtures.
2. A number of displays boosts sales. Several successful managers in large stores made one large display and set up individual tables throughout the store.
3. A window display under the strip sign stimulates attention. Tables make a good showing over weekend in perishable window. As far as could be determined, table tops do not fade in the sun.
4. Samples of the private label coffees should be included in all table displays—inside the store or in the window.

Illustration 20. Research Report (Continued)

5. A number of tables should be set up near the regular coffee display. Where there is room, the major display of tables may do a better job away from the regular coffee display.

6. Paper covers should be left on a number of the tables. Certain customers want the cover left on as protection during the trip home, some want to store the tables for use as gifts, amd others want the paper removed in their presence to allow inspection.

7. A number of broken tables were discovered in the test stores. Managers should be cautioned to use care in handling the tables and should be told the proper procedure for crediting unsalable tables.

Photographs of the displays used in certain of the test stores are attached to this report.

Illustration 20. Research Report (Continued)

THE MARKET

It was not until 1933 that sponge rubber production reached a volume sufficient for the Bureau of Census to report it separately in the Census of Manufactures. The Manufacturers' Association started its reporting in 1934. These reports show that since 1933 production and sales increased many fold--

Production of Sponge Rubber Products not Elsewhere Classified
(Census of Manufactures)

Year	Value
1933	$ 1,489,632
1935	4,237,980
1937	9,291,743
1939	11,133,229
1933-1939 increase	650%

There may be some sponge rubber and its products included in the rubber packing ($2,955,353), insulation articles for motor vehicles ($10,385,021), other insulation products ($1,622,940), rubber mats and mattings ($11,209,814) and miscellaneous drug sundries ($7,075,325) statistics reported in the 1939 census but there is no possibility of determining their value. Only the sponge rubber products not elsewhere classified are reported separately by the Bureau of Census.

A further expansion in the market is shown by R.M.A. statistics which show a 160 per cent increase since 1939, and to go back further--a 751 per cent increase since 1934--

Shipments of Industrial Sponge Rubber (R.M.A.)

Year	Chemically Blown	Foamed Latex	Total
1934	(not reported		$ 2,219,000
1935	until 1939)		3,574,000
1936			4,297,000
1937			5,910,000
1938			3,442,000
1939	$ 3,956,000	$3,307,000	7,263,000
1940	7,431,000	6,137,000	13,558,000
1941	10,059,000	8,831,000	18,890,000
1934-1941 Increase	-----	-----	751%
1939-1941 "	152%	167%	160%

Foamed latex, the newer product, made a greater gain during the 1939-1941 period but it only raised foamed latex from 45 to 47 per cent of the sponge rubber produced.

Illustration 21. Market Analysis Report

COMPETITION

According to—

Thomas' Registry of American Manufacturers—1943
MacRea's Blue Book, America's Greatest Buying Guide—1942-43
Rubber Red Book, Directory of the Rubber Industry—1941

there are 109 manufacturers of sponge rubber and sponge rubber products, all but eleven of which were listed in the May 1943 issue of Dun and Bradstreets' Reference Book. These manufacturers, the kinds of sponge rubber they make, and their products are listed in Exhibit A in which the eleven manufacturers not listed in Dun's are indented.

Forty-nine (49) of the 109 manufacturers were members of the Manufacturers' Association at the close of 1941 but only 23 were coded as reporting sponge rubber shipments to the Association. Nineteen were producing chemically blown sponge rubber, two foamed latex and two both kinds. These twenty-three companies are coded (a) in columns 1 and 2 in Exhibit A. Trade directories specified the kinds of sponge rubber 54 of the 109 manufacturers produced. That count is—52 made chemically blown sponge rubber, five foamed latex and seven both kinds. The kinds of rubber these 64 companies produce are specified in the first two columns in the Exhibit.

The leader in the sponge rubber field is apparently the Blank Rubber Products Company of Rockford, Connecticut, which advertises itself as "The Greatest Producer of Sponge Rubber in the World."

Exhibit A lists manufacturers in 16 states; the Census of Manufacturers—1939 reports production from 15 and apparently Indiana manufacturers are the greatest producers—

Sponge Rubber Production by States—1939

Indiana	$ 2,743,507	24.7
Connecticut	2,005,359	18.0
Ohio	1,706,260	15.3
Illinois	1,351,461	12.2
New York	1,058,221	9.5
California	61,042	0.5
Other states— (Iowa, Md., Mass., Mich., Minn., N.J., Pa., R.I., Va.)	2,197,279	19.8
Total	$11,133,229	100.0

Exhibit A lists five manufacturers in Oregon, Texas and Wisconsin, while no production is reported from those states. On the other hand, Rhode Island and Virginia are reported as sponge rubber producing states but trade directories do not reveal manufacturers in them.

Illustration 21. Market Analysis Report (Continued)

The most popular sponge rubber product among the manufacturers seems to be kneeling pads, for 36 of the 109 manufacturers produced them. These manufacturers are coded (k) in column 3 in Exhibit A.

The Exhibit also shows the products of the manufacturers divided into seven classes. Here is a summary of the information--

49 made arm rests, cushions and pads of various kinds.
(36 of which made kneeling pads)

41 made molded specialties, novelties, etc.

24 " die cut specialties, etc.

15 " sponges for various purposes

13 " gaskets

13 " mattresses and upholstery

73 " the following miscellaneous products--

	Manufacturers
Sponge rubber material	22
Sponge rubber sheets	19
Rug cushions	12
Windlace tubing	12
Toys	12
Balls	10
Bath mats	9
Novelties	7
Sponge rubber strips	3
Sponge rubber to specifications	3
Sponge rubber slabs	1
Sponge rubber for auto trade	1
Sponge rubber for flexible box dies	1
Ear pads	1
Flexible mouth pieces	1
Horse collar pads	1
Dolls	1
Sponge rubber combined with curled hair	1
Gummed sponge rubber	1

Trade directories did not specify the produots of some of the manufacturers so the number of firms producing the products mentioned is no doubt greater.

There is likely to be competition from cellulose sponge, which is made by duPont, and perhaps other firms that are outside of the rubber industry.

Illustration 21. Market Analysis Report (Continued)

Magee Company

Mr. Hobart's report of April 19, 1943 did not reveal the Magee Company's sales and profit experience with sponge rubber, but it did contain these comments regarding sponge rubber--

> "Apparently sponge rubber will be made from a variety of materials, according to the use to which it is to be put. Plastic compounds, synthetic latex, and reclaimed latex, in addition to rubber latex, may be used.
>
> "Mr. Spare suggested that the bulk of the sponge rubber business would be for automobile seating, and, therefore, the products should be manufactured near the automobile companies.
>
> "Magee apparently ran into some difficulties in their sponge manufacture."

A. Peoples Sponge Rubber folder and price list is on file. So, also, is a suggestion for the use of sponge rubber as gymnasium mats made March 1, 1940 by Russell Jones, principal of Frank A. Smith Junior High School, Somerville, Massachusetts, which was reported by Mr. Hobart on March 27, 1940 as follows--

> "Mr. Day said they (Akron) are actively engaged in investigating the possibilities of such use and have already done considerable work."

When sponge rubber is again available for general use, its use for this market might give the Wheeler Rubber Division an advantage because of its connections with athletic directors and the sporting and athletic goods industry.

June 4, 1943 F. B. Winslow

Illustration 21. Market Analysis Report (Continued)

REPORT

on the

STUDY OF THE ATHLETIC FOOTWEAR SITUATION

BY THE

SALES RESEARCH DEPARTMENT

of the

WHEELER RUBBER COMPANY

and

MAGEE FOOTWEAR CORPORATION

Prepared by
F. B. Winslow
Sales Research Manager

Illustration 22. Research Report (Selected parts: Title page, Table of Contents, Introduction, Conclusion, two pages from Exhibit A)

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INTRODUCTION

This report presents the results of a study of the following assignment to the Sales Research Department by the Management--

What is the present situation of the Company's Athletic Footwear line with respect to--

(a) Product and Price Policies
(b) Markets
(c) Competition
(d) Channels of Distribution
(e) Organization
(f) Sales Methods

The shoes designated by the Management as the Athletic Footwear to be studied, are--

Wheeler	Magee
Grand-Stander	Spur-on
Tarzan	All-champs
Goalie	Leader
Home-Runner	Long Semice
Sturdy	Leaders-All
Inbak	Simmons
Sho Grip	Scorer
Sho Grip Lace to Toe	Hi-Shooter
Scorer	Dana
Smokies	Dana Lace-to-Toe
Advance	
Jimshu	

Those interviewed during the study were--

Company:

Home Office Executives
Field Organization

Manufacturers of:

Sporting Goods

Wholesalers of:

Sporting Goods
Ammunition and Sporting Goods
Hardware and Sporting Goods

Retailers of the following types:

Clothing Stores
College Co-Operative Stores
Department Stores
Haberdasheries

Illustration 22. Research Report (Continued)

Hardware Stores
Neighborhood Variety Stores
News Stands
Shoe Stores
Sporting Goods Stores
Stationery Stores
Stores in Athletic, University and Downtown Clubs
Stores in Office Building Gymnasiums
Uniform Outfitters
Y. M. C. A. Stores

Wearers of Athletic Shoes used for:

Badminton
Basketball
Bowling
Boxing
Gymnasiums
Handball
Indoor Track
Outdoor Track
Squash
Tennis
Volley Ball

The inventor of the game of basketball—Dr. James Naismith

Coaches and Athletic Directors at colleges, schools, clubs and Y. M. C. A.'S.

Gymnasium Managers

Doctors

Publishers of Athletic Publications

Athletic Association Members

The field trip extended into the New England, New York, St. Louis, Kansas City and Chicago sales districts.

Questionnaires were forwarded to and completed by the Charlotte, Syracuse, Cleveland, Minneapolis and San Francisco district managers. Thus this report shows the consensus of all the sales districts.

All available and relevant statistical information from Company files and from outside sources were used.

An offer, made by the Athletic Magazine Organization, to send questionnaires, in the Company's behalf, to fifty each of college, prep school and high school coaches, was accepted. The information from the returned questionnaires is included in this report and the results of the questionnaires are included in Exhibit 1.

This report is divided into the following major sections—

Markets
Products
Price
Competition
Channels of Distribution
Organization
Sales Methods
Conclusion
Exhibits

Illustration 22. Research Report (Continued)

CONCLUSION

The study of the Athletic Footwear situation, as presented in the preceding pages, indicates that the most successful way to gain a large share of the Athletic Footwear Business is for a company to have a special policy and organization modeled after and conducted along the lines of the sporting goods trade.

The company's Athletic Footwear lines and business have many important assets and liabilities, which are discussed in this report, and in order to sum them up briefly the following statement of assets and liabilities is given, without an attempt made to show them in their order of importance:—

Assets	Liabilities
An increasing market.	Spotty distribution.
Less effect from depressions than other lines.	Not calling on Coaches, Athletic Directors, etc.
Year round demand.	Imports of cheap oxfords.
Increasing sales of low priced numbers.	Unfavorable exporting conditions.
Excellent reputation for quality.	Lack of special sales policy.
Some favorable features.	Decreasing sales of leading numbers.
Many other products handled by Sporting Goods Houses.	Many unfavorable features.
Better position on Athletic Footwear than on total canvas footwear.	Unpopular type basketball shoes.
Manufacturing Shoes, which rank second in preference.	Some prices not competitive with leather shoe prices.
Athletic Footwear better profit items than the rest of canvas footwear lines.	Strong direct competition.
Little brand loyalty among the trade.	Increasing competition from leather athletic shoes.
Sporting Goods Houses better credit risks than shoe stores.	Strong Rockbridge preference.
Little bad product history.	Lack of important selling methods used by principal competitors.
	Selling Chain Stores.
	Untrained Athletic Footwear salesmen.
	No promotional salesmen.
	Home Office Organization slow in assisting field organization.
	Large quantity of jobs on New York market.
	Selling methods not conforming to Sporting Goods trade practices.
	Unsufficient warehousing.
	Lack of proper display material and its use.
	Lack of Athletic Footwear Catalogs.

January 17, 1948

F. B. Winslow
Sales Research Manager

Illustration 22. Research Report (Continued)

EXHIBIT 1

ATHLETIC MAGAZINE QUESTIONNAIRE

(Sent to 50 each High School, Prep School & College Coaches)

Return to: Athletic Magazine Organization
260 Smith Avenue
New York, N. Y.

(All questions pertain to both boys and girls.)

NAME OF SCHOOL: _____

CITY: _____ STATE: _____ POPULATION: _____

1. How many students enrolled in Senior High School? _____
2. What percentage are members of a regular gymnasium class?
3. What percentage play--Basketball: _____ Field Hockey: _____
   Tennis:_____ Indoor Track: _____
4. Approximately how many in each of the above sports are furnished equipment, such as shoes, by the School Athletic Association?
   Basketball: _____ Tennis: _____ Field Hockey: _____
   Indoor Track: _____
5. Do you purchase your athletic shoes for team use direct from manufacturer _____ or local sporting goods dealer_____
   or local shoe store _____
6. Where do the balance of those taking part in indoor athletics of any kind purchase their shoes?
   Local sporting goods dealer _____ Local shoe store _____
   Cooperative store in the school _____
7. Is a certain brand or type of canvas shoe specified for
   Varsity team use _____
   Gym students _____
8. Are there any unfavorable features of the canvas athletic shoes now worn?
   _____
   _____
9. What changes and improvements could you suggest that would be helpful?
   _____
   _____
10. What make of canvas athletic footwear, particularly basketball shoes, is preferred and why?
    _____
    _____
11. How did you become acquainted with this particular shoe?
    _____
    _____

Illustration 22. Research Report (Continued)

EXHIBIT 1 (Continued)

RESULTS OF ATHLETIC MAGAZINE QUESTIONNAIRE

46 Questionnaires were received from coaches located in 44 different cities and towns, ranging in population from 150 to 7,000,000, and located in 22 different States.

The Questionnaires were received from--

32 High School Coaches
11 Prep School Coaches
3 University Coaches
46

Question 1--How many students enrolled in School?

Answer--	Students Range	Students Total
32--High Schools	50-10,107	37,697
11--Prep Schools	45- 800	3,010
3--Universities	425- 1,500	2,725
		43,432

Question 2--What percentage are members of a regular gymnasium class?

Answer	Percent Range	Percent Average	Students
2--High Schools	0)	82%	31,094
30--High Schools	30-100%)		
3--Prep Schools	0)	74	2,218
8--Prep Schools	85-100%)		
3--Universities	67- 80	72	1,940
			35,252

Question 3--What percent play--Basketball?
Tennis?
Field Hockey?
Indoor Track?

Answers--

Basketball	Percent Range	Percent Average	Students
32 High Schools	8-100%	44%	16,490
11 Prep Schools	10- 75	41	1,236
3 Universities	70-100	64-	1,750

Illustration 22. Research Report (Continued)

CHAPTER 5

Summary Reports

Summary reports are written to condense and consolidate considerable material into brief space. Like investigation reports, they usually function as short cuts or timesavers for the readers, usually superiors in the company organization.

MEETING MINUTES

Meeting minutes are a written report of the accomplishments of a group in an organized meeting, or session. The group that holds the meeting may be officers of an organization, members of a special or standing committee, personnel of a department, or some other permanent or temporary group.

The group report serves three definite purposes, which should determine the way in which notes on the meeting are taken, and the way in which the meeting report is written and used. First, it records the activities and accomplishments of the group. Second, it preserves that record for later use in verification, checking, and for general information. The third use of meeting minutes is to inform outsiders of the activities and accomplishments of the group. It often happens that in the organization and operation of a company several or many committees and departments operate independently. They do their work and they hold regular or infrequent meetings at which they discuss plans, projects, and policies. Copies of the minutes of the meetings of all such committees and departments go to a central coordinating executive whose job is to follow and to control, indirectly, the activities and progress of all the units of the company. This executive is not a member of any of the groups, and does not attend their meetings.

Organization

Meeting minutes can be organized in one of two ways: *chronological order*, following the progress and development of the meeting; and

logical order, with the material grouped and arranged in order of importance and usefulness. The former is much more commonly used, because it is easier, but logical order has several advantages and should be used as much as possible.

If meeting minutes are written in chronological order, the secretary simply develops into a written report the notes that he took during the progress of the meeting. Often this procedure is satisfactory, and any other would be unnecessary and unjustified extra work. Minutes arranged chronologically always have definite limitations, however. They are routine, and they sound uninteresting and dull. More important, they are inconvenient for reference to specific items because they usually take the form of a series of paragraphs on a page. Since there is no segregation and distribution of material, the report does not emphasize important items and subordinate unimportant ones; therefore it is difficult if not impossible for an outsider to look over the minutes and get an adequate idea of what the group did during its meeting. He can gain no idea of the relative importance of the topics discussed.

A meeting report organized logically represents more secretarial work. The secretary must take chronological notes during the meeting. Later he must evaluate, reorganize, and group them before he develops them in writing. But if the minutes are important and are to be put to any practical use, the extra work is worth doing. The reorganized material makes a more attractive and interesting report, and one that is much easier to refer to and use, either by a member of the group or by an outsider.

Use of Material

Although meeting minutes are routine and not particularly lively, they can be well or poorly done. Much of their effectiveness depends on intelligent use of some simple principles and devices. It is always possible to vary even the most standardized items of content. The time, place, and attendance of the meeting must be stated to complete the record, but those facts can be varied in form and phrasing, and in the position that they occupy in the report.

To facilitate the use of the minutes later, related items should be grouped and set up on the page in block form, so that at a glance the reader sees similar material as a report section. The layout can be elaborated by the use of headings, which label the sections and make them stand out on the page.

The report is made more useful if there is emphasis on carry-over items—matters to be taken up at the next meeting, duties delegated to members of the group, and reports due at the next meeting from mem-

bers and subcommittees. Emphasis on these items is important to the efficient functioning of the group. If copies of the minutes are sent to the members of the group, each man who has a special responsibility before the next meeting is reminded when he sees that fact in a conspicuous position and form on the page. There is less likelihood that he will forget about what he is supposed to do before the next meeting is called. The secretary's work also is simplified. At the beginning of a meeting, when he is called upon for items of unfinished business, he has the group of items before him in his own records, and need not run through a series of paragraphs to pick them out.

Diplomacy is required in recording the minutes of many group meetings. It may be important to list attendance carefully, giving attention to the seniority and prestige of the men listed. For example, a committee may be made up of two department heads, two bookkeepers, and two janitors. If the name of one of the janitors begins with *A*, and if the secretary lists meeting attendance alphabetically, one of the executives, whose name begins with *W*, may be pained and even infuriated to find his name following that of a mere janitor. Similarly, it may be important to give men credit for even minor contributions to a meeting. A member of the group may be offended if he sees the minutes and notices that he was not given credit for having proposed, or seconded, a motion. In general, reports, important ideas, opinions, and motions should be recorded with the names of the individuals who contributed them. "Mr. Haley said . . ." usually is better reporting than "A member of the committee said . . ."

The importance of these and similar niceties of diplomacy in meeting minutes depends entirely on the members of the group. If the secretary knows from his association with the men that even one of them needs to be handled gently, he should keep that fact in mind when he writes his report. In reporting the activity of another group, he can disregard such strategies if he knows that they are not important.

Illustrations 23, 24, and 25 are three versions of a committee meeting report, showing the advantages and disadvantages of different forms of statement and layout of material. In Illustration 26 notice the blocks of material, the use of labels to indicate the kind and importance of items, the ease with which even a casual reader can look over the report and get a definite idea of the work and accomplishment of the group.

SUGGESTION CONTEST COMMITTEE MEETING

The Suggestion Contest Committee met on Tuesday, September 27, 1947, at 2:30 p.m., in Mr. Drew's office. The following members of the committee were present: Mr. Black, Mr. Holley, Mr. Ward, and Mr. Drew. Mr. Murray was not in attendance because of his absence from the company offices to attend a meeting in New York of the American Credit Association.

The meeting began by Mr. Drew calling on Mr. Ward for his report on his survey of production foremen. Mr. Ward said he had talked with all seven of the foremen. Five of them approve and will encourage the Suggestion Contest. The other two will cooperate but are of the opinion that so far as their departments are concerned the contest will not be sufficiently productive to warrant the expense and work involved. There was some discussion of this, with Mr. Holley suggesting that the two foremen be seen by Mr. Drew to get a more detailed statement of their reaction to the contest.

Also carried over from the preceding meeting of the committee was the matter of a name for the contest. All the committee members had given the matter some thought and various members offered the following names: "Simms Suggestion Contest", "Simms' Suggestions", "Ideas for Simms", "Simms' Simmerings", "Bright Ideas", "Simms Help Helps", "All-Simms Contest".

A final vote was taken on the matter of prizes. They are as follows: First, $50.00; Second, $25.00; Third, $15.00.

It was agreed that Mr. White of the Simms News should sit in on the next meeting of the Committee and get material directly for the next issue of the News.

Mr. Black suggested that President Simms be asked to write a letter boosting the contest, said letter to be distributed to all help. The suggestion was voted affirmatively.

Mr. Drew offered the suggestion that the present Committee constitute itself the Prize Award Committee. There was some discussion of this, some members feeling that this committee should award the prizes, others feeling that a different one should be appointed by President Simms, still others that the present committee, with additions, should serve. No decision was reached. Mr. Drew pointed out that a decision should be reached at the next meeting, so that the names could be announced in the contest publicity.

It was suggested that all department heads be called to a short meeting, and asked to boost the contest within their departments. All agreed, and Mr. Drew agreed to call the meeting.

The committee adjourned at 3:15, setting the next meeting date for Wednesday, October 4, 1947, in Mr. Drew's office, at 1:00 p.m.

Respectfully submitted,
Paul S. Ward, Secretary

Illustration 23. Meeting Minutes

SUGGESTION CONTEST COMMITTEE MEETING

The Committee met on Tuesday, September 27, at 2:30 in Mr. Drew's office, the Messrs. Drew, Black, Holley, and Ward present.

The Committee completed four items of business.

1. It voted to establish these prizes: First, $50.00; Second, $25.00; Third, $15.00.

2. It decided to invite Mr. White of the Simms News to attend the next Committee meeting, and get at first hand material for his paper. The Secretary is to notify Mr. White.

3. Following Mr. Black's suggestion, the Committee agreed that President Simms be asked to write a contest publicity letter, to be distributed to all employees. Mr. Black is to talk with President Simms.

4. Mr. Ward moved that a short meeting of department heads be arranged, to secure contest support and publicity. The motion was passed. Mr. Drew is to call the meeting.

Mr. Ward reported on his survey of production foremen's opinions of the contest.

> Five foremen approve of the contest and will encourage it. Two are willing to cooperate but are unenthusiastic, since they believe that in their departments the results of the contest will not justify the expense and work involved.

At Mr. Holley's suggestion, Mr. Drew agreed to talk with the two foremen and get for the Committee a more detailed statement of their opinions.

The personnel of the Prize Award Committee was discussed. The opinion of the group fell into three possibilities: 1. that the present Committee award prizes; 2. that the present committee serve, but with additional appointments; 3. that a new committee be appointed by President Simms. Although the members could arrive at no decision at this meeting, Mr. Drew pointed out that because of the publicity value involved in the naming of the Prize Award Committee, this matter should be settled at the next meeting.

Members of the Committee offered for discussion the following contest names:

Simms' Suggestion Contest	All-Simms Contest
Simms' Suggestions	Ideas for Simms
Simms' Simmerings	Bright Ideas
Simms' Help Helps	

No selection was made, but the matter will be considered at the next meeting.

The meeting was adjourned at 3:15. THE COMMITTEE WILL MEET NEXT ON WEDNESDAY, OCTOBER 4, AT ONE O'CLOCK, IN MR. DREW'S OFFICE.

Respectfully submitted
Paul S. Ward, Secretary

28 September 1947

Illustration 24. Meeting Minutes

SUGGESTION CONTEST COMMITTEE MEETING

Tuesday, September 27, 1947, Mr. Drew's office, 2:30-3:15
Members present: Drew, Black, Holley, Ward
NEXT MEETING--Wednesday, October 4, Mr. Drew's office, 1:00

CARRY-OVER BUSINESS

Report by Mr. Ward on production foremen's opinions of the contest

Interviews with all seven foremen
Five approve of the contest and will encourage it
Two are cooperative but unenthusiastic (they believe that in their departments the results will not justify the expense and work involved)
Mr. Drew to talk with the two foremen (Mr. Holley's suggestion)

Contest name

Proposed names: by Mr. Drew----Simms' Suggestion Contest
Simms' Suggestions
by Mr. Holley--Simms' Simmerings
Simms' Help Helps
by Mr. Black---All-Simms Contest
by Mr. Ward----Ideas for Simms
Bright Ideas

No selection made; to be considered at the next meeting

COMPLETED BUSINESS

1. Prizes decided by Committee vote: First, $50.00; Second, $25.00; Third, $15.00
2. Mr. White of the Simms News to be asked to attend the next meeting. Secretary to notify Mr. White
3. President Simms to be asked to write a contest publicity letter, to be distributed to all employees
(Mr. Black's suggestion)
Mr. Black to talk with President Simms
4. Short meeting of department heads to secure contest support
(Mr. Ward's suggestion)
Mr. Drew to call the meeting

UNFINISHED BUSINESS

1. Prize Award Committee
Three opinions developed during discussion
1. present Committee should award prizes
2. present Committee, with additional appointments, should serve
3. new committee should be appointed by President Simms
For publicity purposes, this matter must be settled at the next meeting (Mr. Drew)
2. Contest name

Respectfully submitted
Paul S. Ward, Secretary

Illustration 25. Meeting Minutes

W. T. NEWWORTH MERCHANDISING MEETING

April 22, 1948

Present: Messrs. Smyth, Ryan, P. March, T. Brown, Kohn, Elliott, Davidson, Hanning, Schriener

1. Biweekly Meetings Two-hour merchandise meetings are to be called by Mr. Smyth either for Saturday mornings or for Monday afternoons at 3:00, every other week.

2. Overstocks Mr. Smyth asked the supervisors to impress on store managers the importance of reducing store inventories. Points which may be made include:

   (a) Higher labor handling cost
   (b) Possibilities of stale or shopworn merchandise
   (c) Increased danger of pilferage
   (d) Greater difficulty in making price changes

   It was pointed out that conditions beyond the control of managers contribute to the overstocks. These include:

   (a) The "loading" during November and December
   (b) Too many flyers
   (c) Taking advantage of special deal prices

   To aid in cleaning up the stocks, the Merchandising Department will buy only a few seasonal flyers between now and November.

3. Demonstrations Because of the present confusion concerning the policy on demonstrations, Mr. Davidson is to draw up a new policy bulletin for store managers on the basis of material discussed during the meeting. The bulletin is to be submitted to those present at the meeting for suggestions before it is sent to the stores.

   It was suggested that the Rochester and the Buffalo stores should be exempt from the provisions of the new demonstration policy.

4. Candy A long discussion of the policy to be followed in pricing candy led to no definite conclusions. Because of the sharp difference of opinion, final decision was postponed.

5. Fundamentals To aid in checking on lapses in operation on the part of managers, Mr. Smyth is to send his copy of the field investigator's reports to each supervisor.

6. Brooms All stores should be checked to see that brooms are not being stored in cellars. It was decided to reduce brooms to 19 cents for a week, to clean them up.

Subjects not covered

Store accounting changes
Canned food products
Pilferage
Policy enforcement

L.T. Schriener, Secretary
April 23, 1948

Illustration 26. Meeting Minutes

LECTURE REPORT

Although learning to take lecture notes and developing them into a summary report seems to be more a part of formal education than of business, the lecture report is important; sometimes it is even a means of advancement for the employee.

The lecture report has three common uses. The first is in the employee training course, conducted by the company, which in effect is a continuation of the same kind of education and the same kind of work as in college or university training.

The second use is in connection with professional improvement. Under varying conditions and regulations, the employee attends professional or technical lectures to continue his general business education, to study a special subject, or to learn a specialized technique that he needs. These lectures may be given under the direction of a business professional society, or they may be a part of a business conference or convention. Because of their value to business workers in general, or to special groups of workers, attendance at the lectures often is encouraged or even required by employers. In many organizations employees who attend specified lectures and meetings are given credit, and often financial compensation in the form of an allowance for meals or registration fees. Usually, however, credits and financial returns are dispensed only after the employee has presented evidence that he actually attended the lecture, and one of the forms that the evidence may take is the lecture report.

Business workers often are asked to write lecture reports as special assignments. Usually a superior turns over to a subordinate the task of attending a lecture and reporting on it because he wants to save himself time and trouble, and for some personal purpose wants a summary of the lecture. He may want information that is of business value to him, or he may want a summary of a lecture on his personal hobby. He may want data that he can use in a speech of his own at some time in the future. He may even want information or criticism on a speaker who is a personal or professional competitor. Whatever he wants, the superior is in a position to get it by delegating the work and the responsibility to a subordinate. And usually it is of advantage to the subordinate to carry out the assignment as well as he possibly can.

There are three types of lecture report: the report that summarizes a lecture, the report that summarizes and also contains criticism and appraisal by the reporter, and the report that presents a summary or summary and criticism of only one of the several topics treated. Since

the procedure for each type is somewhat specialized, it is important that the reporter should know which kind he is to write.

General Procedure

The lecture report, like other kinds, is best worked out according to an organized plan. In general the procedure includes three phases.

Preparation

Usually more preparation can be made than to make a note of the time and place of the lecture, and to provide one's self with a pencil with which to take notes. Preparatory thinking is likely to be worth the time and effort involved, in view of the final results.

The reporter should give some consideration to the subject of the lecture. Usually it will be one with which he is familiar and for which he has an adequate background. It is only logical, for example, that a salesman should be sent to report on a lecture on salesmanship, and that an accountant should report on an accounting lecture. If the subject is relatively foreign, however, it may be worth while to study it in advance of the lecture, to get background and perspective, and to become familiar with the technical terms that the speaker is likely to use. This kind of preparation is particularly important if it is a special piece of work for a superior, and the worker wants to make a good impression.

A line of preparatory thought which is useful but often overlooked is the consideration of possible treatments and developments of the title of the lecture; that is, how you would discuss the subject if you were to give a lecture on it. A little thought in these directions not only gives the reporter perspective on the subject, but it is likely to give him considerable confidence and a personal interest in the assignment. Suppose that he is to summarize a lecture by a railroad tycoon on *Governmental Control of Railroads*. If the reporter devotes even a few minutes to considering what he would say on that subject if he were in the railroad men's place, with the same audience and the same amount of time, he is sure to go to the actual lecture with a background of definite ideas, facts, and opinions. Furthermore, he is almost sure to leave the lecture convinced that if he had had the speaker's opportunity he would have done a much better job than the speaker did; and that kind of self-satisfaction is always harmless and pleasant, if incidental to the main responsibility of reporting on the lecture.

Taking Notes

Taking notes on a lecture is somewhat governed by the lecturer. Some speakers simplify the process by indicating clearly their main and subordinate ideas, and by emphasizing the general organization and

progress of their talk. They use such phrases as "In the first place," "The three important factors are," and "In conclusion I must emphasize the fact that." These labeling phrases let the reporter know in advance that a main idea is coming. On the other hand, some speakers give the reporter no assistance, partly because they do not consciously emphasize important points, partly because the lecture is not so organized and developed that it can be reduced to a coherent summary. It is the reporter's responsibility, therefore, to judge the method and manner of the lecturer, as well as the lecture content, and to take notes in the way best suited to them.

Some tricks of note taking almost always apply, regardless of the nature of the material or the method of the lecturer. Central ideas should be so labeled as the notes are made. Especially if the notes are not to be developed until some time later, it is useful to have the important items clearly indicated, if only by an underline or a check mark in the margin.

If the report is to include criticism as well as summary, the criticism should be noted as it occurs to the listener; two days later it is difficult to remember what seemed wrong with a speaker's facts or his use of them; on the spot the criticism is clear and spontaneous.

Quotations should be noted precisely. Unless the reporter uses shorthand, or unless the speaker talks very slowly, it is almost impossible to take down a full statement accurately. Most notes, therefore, should paraphrase rather than quote the speaker. If an important remark is to be included in the report as a direct quotation, the reporter must be sure that it is exact. Sometimes it is necessary to check the wording with the speaker after he has finished his speech.

References and specific items also should be recorded exactly. If proper names, statistics, book titles, dates are used in the lecture, and if they are important enough to include in the report, the reporter must make sure that he has them right. Not only should he produce an accurate report for the sake of accuracy, but the facts may be very important to the receiver, who may reuse for purposes of his own. One of the reasons why even technical material sometimes becomes distorted and garbled as it goes from person to person is because reporting and transfer are inaccurate.

The most important factor in successful note taking is the ability to use key words and phrases to recall and reconstruct the surrounding material. A few notes, well selected and well phrased, are always better than a quantity of frantic and illegible writing. The exact nature of the selected notes, however, varies from person to person; a phrase that will recall ten minutes of a speech to one reporter will draw no response

from another who heard the speech. The individual must develop his own techniques and habits of note taking. But the techniques must be used consistently so that the habits may become well established if he is to take notes that are useful.

Preparing the Report

The preparation of the lecture report depends on the details and requirements of the assignment, and on the reporter's knowledge of the reader's desires, interests, and ways of reacting.

The organization of the report by parts and sections usually depends on the type of report being written.

The summary-of-content report can be set up in two ways. In the first organization the reporter gives the reader a brief summary, usually one page, followed by a developed summary that contains supporting material, some minor points, and such supplementary data as illustrations used and authorities quoted. In contrast to this two-part report is the one-part report: a single summary that follows the speaker's order of material, unless the reader's requirements make reorganization desirable.

The report that summarizes and criticizes the lecture also may be sectioned in two different ways. The summary may be followed by the criticism, with the sections carefully labeled so that the reader knows which kind of material he is reading. The limitation of this organization is that if the lecture content is complicated and the report long, the reader has difficulty in referring back and forth between pages, and in correlating summary and criticism as he goes along. The other method is to report the summary and the criticism together, in alternating paragraphs or sections, in parallel narrow columns on the same page, or on facing pages. In this arrangement it is important to use headings and labels conspicuously. By exercising some ingenuity an attractive and very readable report can be worked out.

The selection-of-content report usually disregards the speaker's organization and arranges the selected material in order of importance to the reader. For example, if a business man assigns a reporter to attend a general discussion of business conditions, and to report only on references made to conditions in the foods industries, he is interested in those references in terms of their relative importance to him. The report therefore should so present the selected summary. The report may include, however, a general summary of the whole lecture, usually condensed to one page, for the reader's general information and convenience, and sometimes to show how the selected items fitted into the complete discussion.

Next to organization, perspective probably is the reporter's most important responsibility. He must keep separate the different kinds of material: (1) ideas and comments stated during the introduction of the speaker, (2) the speaker's ideas and facts, (3) the reporter's reaction to and criticism of the speaker's facts, ideas, opinions, and conclusions, (4) the reporter's reaction to and criticism of the speaker's personality, manner, and lecturing ability. The two kinds of material that are most likely to fuse and cause trouble in the reporter's thinking are his objective criticism of the speaker's content, and his subjective criticism of the speaker as a speaker or as a man. He is doing poor reporting if he questions the soundness of the speaker's conclusions because he disliked unkind references by the speaker to a particular group. Occasionally personal reactions and criticisms are a part of the finished report; usually they are not. Always the reporter should keep the kinds of material separate in his own thinking. He should not allow them to overlap and mingle, nor should he allow one to influence and color another.

CONFERENCE REPORT

A conference report is a summary report on a conference or series of meetings. In form and method it is similar to and an extension of the lecture report, since it covers lectures, discussions, and business sessions of the conference or convention. Usually the reporter is also a delegate, and he prepares his report for the benefit of business associates who did not attend the meetings but who need or want an adequate summary of the meetings.

Before attending the conference, the reporter should be sure of the nature and extent of his responsibility; that is, whether his assignment is a general one covering the entire conference, or whether he is to prepare a specific and limited report that will correlate with the reports of other delegates. He also should know the conference program in advance, and should plan his time so that he knows which meetings he will attend.

Another useful preparatory factor is some knowledge of the speakers and discussion leaders who will appear on the program. If he knows their positions, backgrounds, connections, he is likely to have a fairly good idea of the point of view and stand they will take on their subjects. Further, it is useful to know, if possible, the standards, prejudices, and loyalties of the conference leaders. Especially on controversial subjects the reporter is better oriented if he knows the positions and points of view of the speakers he is listening to.

At the conference it is important to take adequate notes on the meetings to be covered by the report. Usually the report is not written until some days later, and the reporter must have notes that will serve as the basis of a written summary, after the occasion itself has faded from his mind. Supplementary material in the form of speech digests, exhibition samples and pamphlets, and membership lists often is useful, either included in the finished report or as general background for the reporter himself.

At most conferences, trends and tendencies, general points of view, opinions, and attitudes become apparent as the meetings take place and as a delegate talks with other delegates. It may happen, for example, that most of the people attending the conference have a definite attitude toward governmental control of business. No speech is made on the subject. Instead, the attitude comes to the surface in personal conversations and discussions, in resolutions adopted at a business meeting, through hints and references in speeches, and by other indirect means. Frequently, if the delegate can include in his report a clear-cut analysis of the trend of sentiment and opinion on subjects of current importance, he is doing better reporting than he is if he merely brings back a series of speech summaries. The delegate should be aware of this possibility, and be alert to the scattered and diverse items that build up a definite conclusion.

The conference report that is submitted to a superior, or is duplicated and sent to interested men in the company organization, can best be set up in two parts. First there should be a summary or outline of the whole conference, to indicate the extent and spread of the material, and to enable any reader to refer to the sections in which he is most interested. This general section is followed by specialized sections, made up of summaries and outlines of speeches and discussions. Sometimes it is a part of the reporter's assignment to add his own analysis and criticism.

It is important to keep in mind the fact that the readers of the report did not attend the conference, and that their only knowledge of it will come from the report. Sections and kinds of material should be carefully labeled. Individuals should be identified accurately and completely. If the report is prepared for one reader, emphasis by development and by mechanical devices should be placed on those items that the reporter believes to be most important and most interesting to his reader.

As in the lecture report, accuracy is highly important. When the delegate turns in his report he automatically becomes its sponsor, and any misstatement, misquotation, or wrong statistic is his error rather

than the error of the original speaker. It is also important that the writer make clear to the reader whether at any point in the report he is expressing personal opinions rather than an objective view.

Illustration 27 (on page 162) is the first page of a detailed report on a business conference. It was prepared by one man, and was duplicated and sent to fifteen executives in the company whom the writer represented at the conference. Notice that by looking through the outline each of the fifteen readers can get a comprehensive idea of the conference activity and can locate the details on the topics in which he is especially interested.

DISCUSSION-GROUP MINUTES

In recent years an organized use of employee discussion groups has been common in many business organizations as a means of building up desirable employee relationships and morale, and as a means of discovering and developing useful ideas and proposals.

Usually the organization consists of a series of groups, with the personnel of each group selected on a departmental basis, or selected by a cross-section method that brings together men from different departments and different levels of authority and salary. During a period of several weeks or months the groups hold a series of discussion meetings, sometimes in a working hour set aside for the purpose, sometimes in the evening. The subject for discussion may be a local, internal problem or proposal; a topic of general interest in the phase of industry in which the company operates; or a topic of general educative value to any business workers. At the end of the series of meetings some plan is employed for unifying or coordinating the results. Frequently competition is a factor in the discussion group system, and a reward in the form of prizes, written commendation, or an employee dinner is given to the group which has made the most progress in the treatment of the subject, or has advanced the largest number of new and usable ideas and conclusions.

Many business men regard the discussion-group system as an important instrument in personnel management. It is not adapted to all kinds and sizes of companies, but where it can be used it is likely to produce some definite and valuable results. Participation in the discussion group tends to develop in individual employees loyalty and a sense of identity with the company. Over a period of time the discussion system helps to break down the worker-management barrier, and to build up a unified morale. The management of the company finds the groups a profitable medium for locating, encouraging, and develop-

Industrial Relations Conference

Brief Outline

I. Getting Business Facts to Workers (Pages 1-5)
   A. Specific program must be planned and executed by individual companies
      1. Can be done through employee representatives, but do not omit supervision
      2. "Canned" programs by commercial companies (training services) are OUT
   B. Labor Information Bulletin (sent to Mr. Blanchard)
      Question: How many copies should be circulated here?
   C. Facts available through National Association of Manufacturers
      1. Radio Broadcasts
      2. Industrial News Service free to local newspapers
      3. "The American Fireside" (Sent to Mr. Blanchard)
      Question: Do we approve of such a paper for distribution here?

II. Wage and Salary Administration (Pages 6-14)
   A. Avoid planned periodic pay adjustments
   B. Better definition of jobs through job analysis is essential in establishment of equable rates
   C. General recommendations regarding wages:
      1. More scientific allocation of proportions of total income to wages and salaries
      2. Complete information to employees regarding distribution of income
   D. Joint Wage Committee (See Saunders' paper, page 10)
   E. Establish wage rates by job rating (See Brown's paper, page 10)
   F. Classification of jobs for wage and salary ranges (Page 13--Charts sent to Mr. Henderson)

III. Health Insurance (Pages 15-18)
   A. Indication that objections of medical profession will be overcome if certain fundamental principles are adhered to and rights and privileges of medical profession preserved
   B. An Experiment in Group Medical Care (See Dr. Jack's paper, page 17)

IV. Old Age Pensions (Pages 19-23)
   A. Indication that Federal rather than State Pension Plans will prevail
   B. Companies advised to retain their own pension plans
   C. Insured pensions (See page 21 for Bourke-McKenney Corporation Report)

V. Unemployment Reserves (Pages 24-26)
   (State Pool versus Industry Reserves--trend in legislation is definitely toward the State Pool under Federal Control)

ing new and usable ideas. In many specific instances, also, the activity of the groups is used as a means of uncovering and developing ability and initiative that employees are believed to have but are not using.

Each group is under the direction of a leader whose responsibility is to direct and control the progress of the discussion in each meeting and during a series of meetings. He usually is a minor executive, or a subordinate worker who shows promise and ability but is not ready for advancement in his regular work. Discussion-group leadership is one method for giving such a worker responsibility and encouragement, and a trial.

The other officer in each group is the secretary, who keeps a record of the group meetings. This record is not only used by the group itself, but usually is sent to a central officer who observes the activity and progress of all of the groups and coordinates the reports from them, sometimes in the form of a summary report.

The secretary's report is in the form of meeting minutes, but with some special features and characteristics.

The purposes of the minutes are (1) to show the accomplishment of the group; that is, the topics covered and the methods and details of coverage; and (2) to represent the group to good advantage in relation to the other groups in the discussion system. Both of these purposes must be kept in mind by the secretary during the meeting, and later when he prepares his written report.

During the meeting, the secretary must distinguish between major and minor material. Unless the meeting is well directed and unless the discussion is intelligent and systematic, this separation is likely to be difficult. However, the minutes always should present a coherent summary, even though the meeting itself was rambling and confused.

When he writes his report, the secretary should give special thought to the use of outlines, lists, and summary paragraphs as a means of displaying the material, and making it easily read and understood by anyone outside of the group, especially a supervisory coordinator.

In contrast to regular meeting minutes, the discussion-group report usually does not give credit to individuals for personal contributions and accomplishments. Since the group functions as a unit rather than as a series of individuals, credit goes to the group as a whole. The minutes therefore are more objective and impersonal than are the minutes of other types of meetings.

In the illustration on page 164 notice the page layout, the style of writing, and the use of lists and outlines. This report was written after a meeting in which discussion was free, active, and not particularly systematic. Of necessity the secretary took notes on the ideas as they

GROUP #4 DISCUSSION

Leader, H. E. Bates
Thursday, October 27, 1947
2nd Meeting

Three absentees.

The meeting opened with a brief summary by the leader of the results of the questionnaire distributed at the last meeting. Decided preference was indicated for group members' supplying the subjects for discussion, and for the particular subject of "Methods of Communication between Management and Supervision." One phase of the latter subject in which interest is universal is the methods at the command of supervision for putting its ideas across to management.

Analysis of these methods in discussion showed them to be:

1. Verbal transmission, through organization lines, or on one's own hook
2. Written transmission, mainly through the existing General Order system

Criticism of both methods was hot and caustic. Resolved into essentials, the major comments can be listed as:

1. Ideas verbally submitted are:
   a. Pirated at times
   b. Disregarded completely by higher supervision
   c. Discouraged completely by higher supervision
   d. Judged without full or fair consideration
   e. Resented if the suggester goes over any one's head in the process
2. Ideas submitted in the form of G. O. are:
   a. Allowed to die a natural death through inaction
   b. Passed on summarily without due thought—decided upon—passed along
   c. Killed without any reason being given to the originator of the idea
   d. Accepted without due credit to the suggester

Other main criticisms were:

1. Too much cold water is thrown on a new idea—it discourages having ideas at all
2. Organization lines are held too sacred—ideas passing along them may get garbled out of all resemblance to the original thought
3. No man feels sure that management knows or cares how good his ideas are or have been
4. One seldom receives any explanation whatever when an idea is accepted, modified, or rejected

Admitting that all the foregoing was destructive criticism, the group decided to give two weeks' thought to remedies for all these evils, and present said remedies at the next meeting.

L. S. Goon, Secretary

Illustration 28. Discussion–Group Minutes

were presented and discussed, and then rearranged them in the organized summary that constitutes his report.

READING REPORT

The written report on material which the reporter reads, summarizes, and sometimes criticizes is a type of report used in some specialized business situations. In research work it takes the form of a digest of printed material on related research, or on source data. Like the lecture report, it is used to fulfill a special assignment by a superior who wants a summary of a book or article without taking the time and trouble to read it himself. In some companies, the summary reading report is used to review a new book or magazine which is being considered for purchase for a company or departmental library, or for an employee's educational or recreational library. Occasionally a special assignment consists of reading a book or article and preparing a summary which will be duplicated and distributed to employees.

In any of these uses the reading report is worked out by about the same procedure as is the lecture report. It is similar in content: it contains a summary, summary and criticism, or selected material on one or several specialized topics. The organization and setup also are similar, and depend on the type of reading report being written.

Taking notes on a book or article is as variable a process as taking notes on a lecture. Some guides, however, usually apply in a useful way. If a summary report is to be written, the reporter should read the material rapidly in its entirety to get in mind the purpose, emphasis, main ideas, and organization; that is, to reinforce the plan and design of the material as indicated by a table of content or an introductory statement. Then, in a second reading, notes should be taken by chapters or sections, or to conform to the organization of the report, which may vary from the organization of the material which the report summarizes. If a detailed report is to be prepared, the reporter should make note of the writer's style, references, illustrations, tables, statistics, and similar data. Finally, the reporter usually can make liberal use of direct quotations for key statements and summaries of sections of the material.

If criticism of ideas and conclusions is to be added to the summary, the same general procedure should be followed, but in addition notes should be written out on the analysis and criticism as it occurs to the reporter during his reading.

In reading for the third type of reading report (that on selected material) the reporter may need to peruse a number of pieces of litera-

ture. He should have in mind the aim of the report which he is to write; that is, the exact nature and scope of the topic or topics on which he is to find data. If he is looking for several topics, he must decide before he begins reading through any book or article whether he will look for all of them at once, or one at a time in several checkings of the material. Since the receiver of the report may want to refer to the original sources at some later time, the reporter should include page references in his notes.

In all three types of reading report a kind of material usually neglected or not used to full advantage is supplementary data which may be of use to the reader of the report. Information on writers, editors, and contributors not only may be interesting and useful, but it often has a bearing on the reliability of the material being reported. Sources therefore should be identified by more than a factual bibliographical note.

PROBLEMS

1. Prepare a secretary's report on a business meeting which you have attended—a meeting of a class organization, committee, or club. Assume that the report is to be used by the group for future reference, is to be read aloud by the secretary at the next meeting, and is to be sent to a person outside of the group who is interested in knowing the business and accomplishment of the group.

   Prepare two versions of the report: one following the chronological order of the meeting, and the other showing the logical order of the meeting minutes.

2. Prepare a summary and criticism report on a lecture. Assume that your reporting assignment is to attend the lecture and report the substance of the discussion, together with criticism on (1) soundness and validity of the material presented, and (2) effectiveness of the lecturer's presentation.

   Include a letter of submittal with the report. Indicate what preparation you made before attending the lecture.

3. Prepare a summary-of-content lecture report. Include only the lecture content, and adequate identification of the speaker and the occasion.

4. Secure a printed program of a business conference. Assume and formulate a definite reporting assignment. Prepare a report on the preparation that you would make before attending the conference. Be sure to include a statement of your assignment as a part of the report.

5. Assume that the president of a company with which you are familiar has delegated you to set up an employee discussion system for consideration by the president and his associates. Prepare a report on a plan which you

believe would work successfully. Cover the following items: (1) kind, name, and location of the company, (2) number and classifications of employees, (3) employees to be included in the discussion-group system, and why, (4) employees to be omitted from the system, and why, (5) size of groups, (6) personnel of groups, and method of selection, (7) method of selecting leader and secretary, (8) subject or subjects for discussion, with reasons for their selection, (9) number of discussion meetings, frequency, length, time spread, (10) rewards for groups and individuals, (11) values to be derived from the system by the company and by the employees.

Include a letter of submittal as a part of the report.

6. Prepare a summary report on a technical business article. Assume that the receiver of the report has not the specialized technical background which the writer of the article assumed his reader to have. One of the functions of the report is to simplify and adapt the article to the interests and understanding of the nontechnical reader. Include a letter of submittal which states how this adaptation has been worked out.

7. Prepare a summary and objective criticism report on a news story or a commentator's column.

CHAPTER 6

Periodic Reports

Periodic reports are routine reports, prepared and submitted at specified, scheduled dates. They cover conditions, progress made since the time of the previous report, and comparisons and contrasts. The content therefore falls into three types: summary of factual data, analysis and interpretation of factual data, and analysis of general conditions and trends.

Fundamentally, a periodic report is a formal acknowledgment of an obligation and responsibility which has been assumed and carried out; the details of the report indicate the degree and extent to which writer has discharged his responsibility. In the New England town, for example, the superintendent of schools prepares a report for the annual town report. He tells the citizens how he has fulfilled his responsibility as a town official. The road commissioner, the tax collector, the truant officer, and other town officials prepare similar reports for submittal to the townspeople. In a quite different situation, the president of a corporation reports annually to the stockholders of the company and explains in detail how he and his subordinates have run the company during the past year.

To make an effective report the writer must know his responsibility, what his reader expects of him in discharging that responsibility, and what the reader wants in a report as proof of the efficiency and acceptability of the work done. The report writer therefore needs to maintain a close correlation between the requirements of the working job and the requirements of the reporting job, always with the reader in mind.

INDIVIDUAL REPORT

A small report commonly used in many types of business is the periodic report by an individual on the progress he has made, or on conditions and progress under his immediate supervision. For example, the research worker sends to his superior a memorandum stating what

he has accomplished on a special job to which he has been assigned. The salesman or field worker sends to the home office a report on data gathered, calls made, and similar information. The man in charge of a part or subdivision of a department reports to the head of the department. In general, this type of report is in written form wherever it is desirable to have a record as well as a report, and wherever it is necessary for several or many similar reports to be collected and coordinated by one office or executive.

Form

The form of the individual periodic report depends on the conditions. If reports are frequent, simple, and completely factual, the report usually is submitted on a standardized report form on which the reporter checks items and fills in spaces. If the data require verbal comment, explanation, and personal interpretation, the report takes the form of a memorandum, or sometimes a formal report with an explanatory letter of submittal.

Characteristics

The first requirement of the report is that it should be accurate. Since the report is the writer's representation to the reader of work done and how it was done, the writer's self-interest demands that it present him to best possible advantage.

Many reports use both objective record data and interpretation. The two kinds of material should be kept separate, both in the finished report and in the writer's thinking.

The report should be set up with the reader's requirements in mind. Those usually are three: (1) ease of reading and understanding, (2) comparison with similar reports, (3) ease of reference, filing, and correlation.

The importance of supporting data frequently is underestimated and the data consequently are undeveloped. If the report makes a request for new equipment, additional personnel, or a change in routine, the request should be supported adequately *from the reader's point of view*. Interpretations should be conservative, and should be supported by enough data to make them convincing and acceptable to the reader without supplementary correspondence or interview.

DEPARTMENTAL REPORT

An extension of the individual report, the departmental report covers the conditions, progress, and achievement of a department over a

specified period of time. It may be completely factual and objective, or it may include interpretations and recommendations.

The report may take any of the forms of the individual report. If concentrated facts and statistics are to be reported, a special standardized form is used in the interests of economy and efficiency. Commonly, however, the report content is varied, and subject to analysis and discussion; a written report therefore is to be preferred.

Content

The fully developed departmental report is likely to contain four major kinds of material. The extent of each, and the relative proportions depend, of course, on the department being reported on, and on the available material.

Data on departmental achievement

This material indicates how the department has been operated during the period covered by the report. Achievement may be reported by prose summary, tabulation, or a combination of the two styles. Verbal interpretation often is an important adjunct to tabulation. Frequently comparisons and contrasts are drawn between departmental accomplishment during the period of the report, and accomplishment during similar periods. These often can be presented to best advantage by graphic methods.

Data on departmental equipment

The report often contains a summary and survey of equipment and materials, sometimes merely to complete the record, sometimes to show changes and improvements. In addition, this section may contain a special discussion of new and recent equipment, with conclusions as to the advantages in efficiency, production, or speed that have resulted. Machines, office arrangements, lighting systems, and similar items can be used to show advantages and improvements, and used as the basis of further recommendations. The reporter may use his periodic report as the place for stating the needs and requirements of the department. To obtain executive approval it often is good tactics to make a request against the background of data on satisfactory accomplishment, rather than to treat the request as an isolated factor. That is, the head of the department can so construct his report as to imply, "This is what my department has done under existing conditions. It would do better if conditions were improved by the addition of this machine or that system."

Data on departmental personnel

Personnel is reported much as equipment is. The report may contain a summary and survey, special treatment of problem cases, and a supported presentation of needs and requirements.

Data on departmental conditions

An editorial section is a common part of the departmental report. This gives a general survey of conditions, and compares them with those of past periods. It analyzes, interprets, explains, and sometimes justifies the strong points and the weak points of the condition of the department. Finally, it makes direct or implied recommendations in regard to such points as departmental objectives, possible future expansion or retrenchment, personnel needs and changes, equipment needs, and appropriation.

It does not follow that in the typical departmental report these four kinds of material are set up as four sections. They represent four possible and common objectives, that is, the use of topics in which the receiver of the report is likely to be interested, and at the same time topics which the writer can use to good advantage in promoting his own interests.

Whatever the exact nature of the report content, it always is used to accomplish two purposes at the same time. It should give the reader a complete and accurate view of the department and its accomplishments. This over-all view should represent the department at its best. At the same time, it must be an accurate view, since exaggerated and falsified material is not good reporting, good business, nor safe practice. The second purpose is to use this accurate but creditable view of the department as the basis of or background to any specific requests or recommendations which the report may contain; or as the support to the implied conclusion that the department has been well run during the period covered by the report.

COMPANY ANNUAL REPORT TO STOCKHOLDERS

Probably the most familiar and widely circulated type of periodic report is the company annual report. Like the others, it is issued to indicate how responsibility has been carried out. It is sent annually to stockholders, shareholders, and some sections of the public, to offer a statement of the standing of the company, its progress during the fiscal year, and its future prospects.

As used by many large and small companies, the report has two major purposes and one supplementary purpose. Primarily, it is a factual document, informing stockholders of the condition of the company; at the same time, it stimulates stockholders' confidence. Inevitably, the *implied* summary statement of the report is, "Since your investment has been used so wisely and to such good advantage during the past year, you should leave it in its present form and if possible, add to it." The supplementary purpose of the report is to promote the interest and confidence which the general public already has in the company. Most annual reports are distributed rather widely; copies are available to any interested persons and are frequently sent out in connection with special publicity efforts by the company.

Content

Until recently the company annual report has been one of the most standardized and conventional forms of business writing. It was always conservative, refined, and restrained. Furthermore, it usually was dull and rather ponderous. While the nature and function of the report necessitates most or all of these characteristics, and while no report can afford to be eccentric and flamboyant, various means are being currently used to add interest, variety, and reader appeal without losing any of the dignity and prestige value. They are applied to different methods of handling the basic material which must make up the content of the report.

Personnel Listing

With very few exceptions, all annual reports list the important personnel of the company. This list usually includes major officers, the board of directors, and sometimes major executive and operating committees. Since it is a logical introductory or concluding item, the list is placed at the beginning or end of the report.

Its purpose is apparent. It identifies company control in terms of individuals and groups, and adds to company prestige through the importance of the names listed. When even the casual observer looks at the page of names and recognizes men of influence whom he easily connects with important affairs, he cannot fail to be impressed by the reflected solidity of the company. The list also serves a useful purpose in acknowledging the activity and the support contributed by the men listed. Furthermore, a man may be pleased or proud to have his name identified with the company, and may be glad to have that relationship acknowledged and publicized even by so impersonal a medium as the annual report.

Financial Statements

Since the essentials of business accomplishment can be reduced to statistics, financial data comprise the central portion of a company annual report. The major item is the consolidated balance sheet. Supplementary statements, used in various combinations by different companies, are (1) income account, (2) earned surplus account, (3) operating statistics, (4) comparative income data, (5) earnings and dividends per share, and (6) financial data on subsidiaries.

Auditor's Endorsement

A statement, usually in letter form, from an auditing company is included; it is an endorsement of the financial material of the report, and proves, presumably, that the figures are accurate and can be accepted by the reader without question.

President's Letter

In many reports, a letter from the president of the company to the stockholders is a prominent and substantial section of the report. It is likely to occupy several pages and frequently is more important in accomplishing the purposes of the report than any other one part.

The letter is a good illustration of the basic point of view of all periodic reports. The president is reporting on the state of the company; that is, he is giving to the stockholders an accounting of how he and his assistants have carried out their responsibilities during the fiscal year.

To accomplish this purpose, the president uses two kinds of letter content. The first is an interpretation of the financial data which appears elsewhere in the report; it explains and comments on the company balance sheet, and other financial statements. To the reader, the value of this explanation and comment is that it makes the financial data more intelligible. For example, the consolidated balance sheet of even a small company is a complicated and baffling document to the uninitiated. The stockholder, while in a select group, is not necessarily well acquainted with financial statements. Consequently, the president performs a useful function when he discusses general financial factors and specific financial items. Frequently this discussion is facilitated by the use of graphic presentation, or translation, of the data in some sections of the letter.

The second kind of letter constitutes a presidential editorial, which may cover only company matters, or may include general industrial topics. Specifically, the president comments on the progress of the

company, its current condition, and special features; he may also comment on the probable future of the company, and on conditions and trends in business, industry, national life, and international affairs. In this kind of letter many important business men distinguish themselves as analysts, commentators, and prophets. Their opinions and conclusions, sometimes prepared in part at least by assistants and specialists, are quoted by newspapers and magazines, are referred to as authoritative pronouncements, and altogether have considerable prestige in many diversified quarters.

Miscellaneous Material

Supplementing the major items of content is miscellaneous material, added to the annual report to build up a complete body of information, and to add variety, interest, and reader appeal. This assorted material has been treated with increasing flexibility in recent years, with the result that the report has become more attractive and more interesting to read.

Miscellaneous items of content fall into two groups. The first contains general information on the company which is not presented directly in the other sections of the report. It discusses such subjects as branches and subsidiaries, acquisitions during the current year, products, and equipment. Usually the information is offered in pictorial form, rather than in text material. It is presented simply, without any effort to emphasize its importance or significance. The reader reaction is interest through eye appeal, leading into an impression of the extensiveness, solidity, or diversity of the company; this impression adds to the total favorable reaction toward the company which the report has created in the reader's mind. For example, a double-page spread may show a photomontage of all of the products manufactured and distributed by the company. At first glance it may seem to be only a complicated picture; but if the pages are skillfully prepared, they attract enough attention to create a definite impression. It may be an impression which cannot be stated in words, or measured, but it contributes to the total effect of the report in accomplishing its basic purposes. Consequently the pages are more than filler; they are a part of the plan and the design of the report.

The second group of miscellaneous items is presented in graphic form. They show various features of company progress and condition; special factors of company organization, production, distribution, earnings, and other financial elements. The more conservative and restrained chart forms are used, and pictographs and modified tabulations as well. A deliberate effort is made to present the information in an attractive

and unusual form. For example, a pictograph using figures of men shows the contrast in number of employees between 1894 and 1941. At first glance, it is just an unusual page, but because of the graphic form of the information, even a glance conveys the fact, and it registers. If the reader were to state his impression it would be the obvious conclusion that the company certainly has grown since 1894. But the pictograph, like the photograph of company products, contributes to the effectiveness of the report.

Increasing ingenuity and liberality are being shown in company reports in the use of incidental, supplementary, miscellaneous material. Nothing is lost from the necessary dignity and substance of the report to stockholders, and much is added by making the report an interesting, less formal document.

COMPANY ANNUAL REPORT TO EMPLOYEES

Another recent development in annual reports is the modified report, prepared by the company for its employees. It is issued at the same time as the annual report to stockholders, but is quite different in form, appearance, and treatment of material.

There are four purposes which can be accomplished, or partially accomplished, by reporting company progress and condition to employees of the company: (1) The report educates and orients the worker by giving him specific data and general information about his company; (2) it helps to develop in the employee a sense of identity with the company for which he works; (3) it emphasizes the interrelationship of management, employees, stockholders, and customers; (4) it emphasizes the mutual responsibilities and problems of management, employees, and stockholders, and the methods by which the three groups can and must function together. The last two purposes usually fit into a general educative plan whereby the company attempts to build up employee beliefs and conclusions by many means and devices, only one of which is the annual report.

The most significant element in the use of the company annual report to employees is the attitude reflected by its use. It is the reverse of the old-time managerial opinion that the employee was a paid worker used by the company; his function was to do his job, collect his pay, go home, and keep quiet. The organization and management of the company, the company's annual profits and what became of them, and similar subjects were not made known to the employee because they were just none of his business. If he expressed any interest or curiosity in the internal working of the company, he was regarded as a disturbing element, in

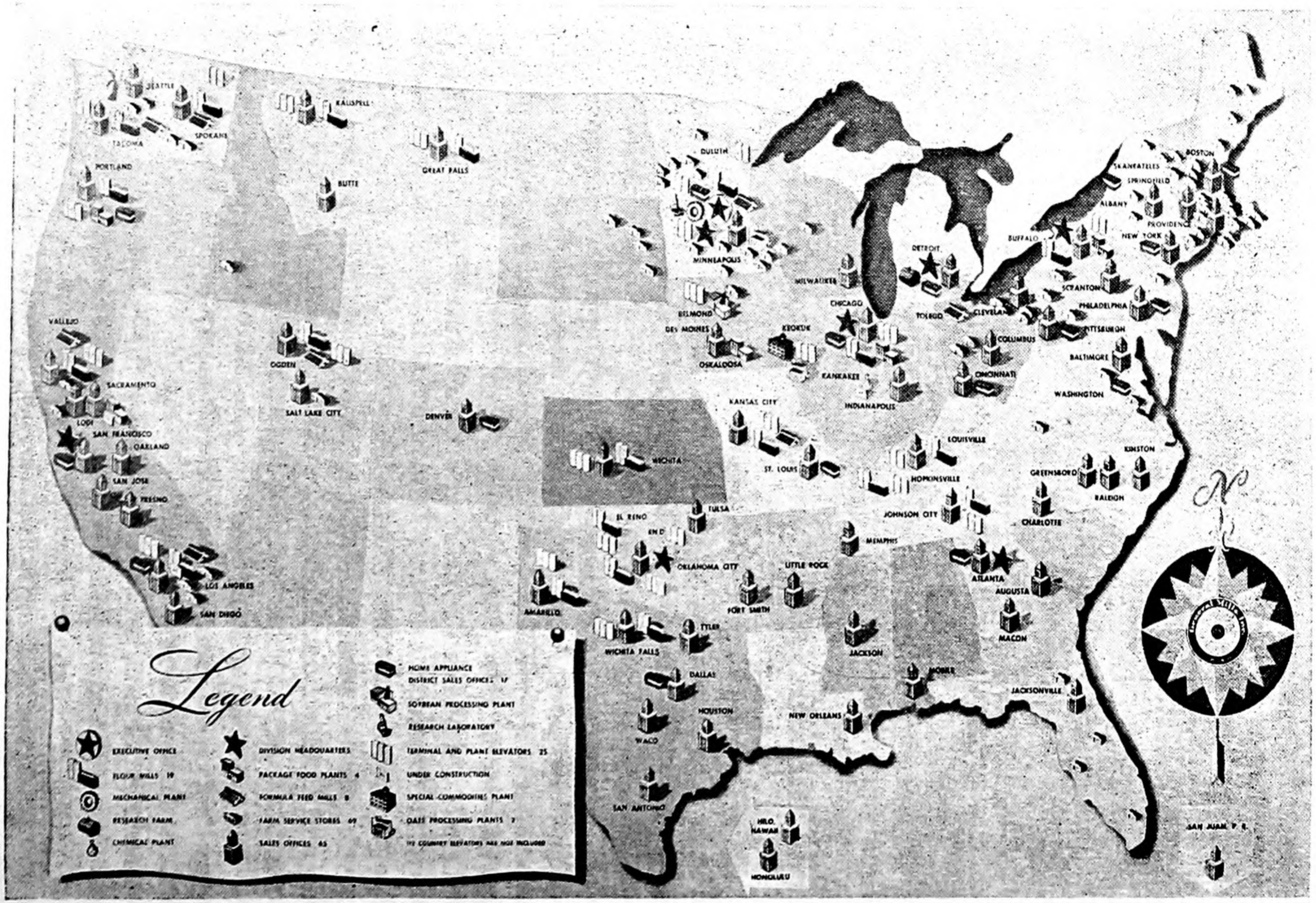
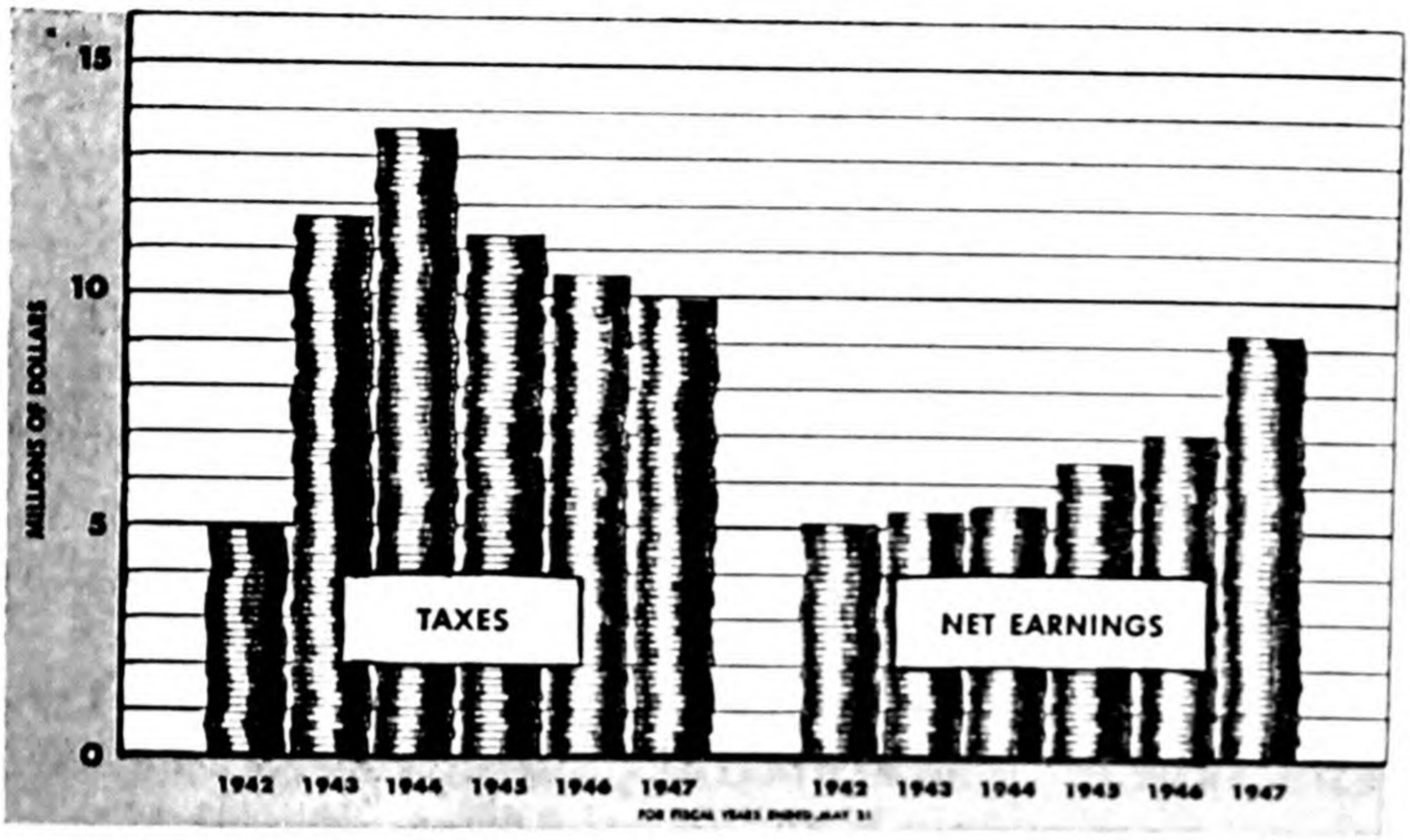
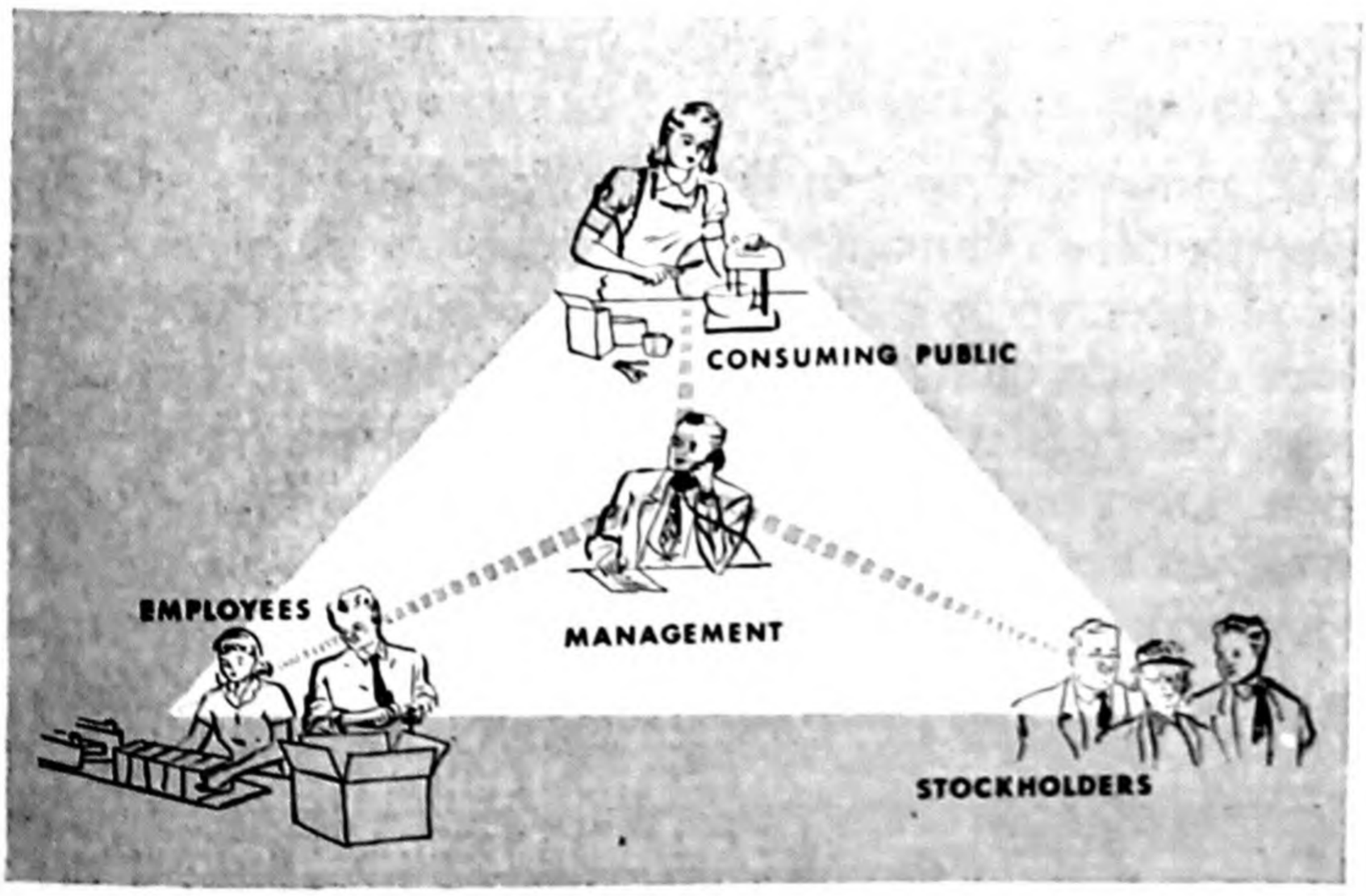


Figure 1. Reproduced from 19th Annual Report of General Mills, Inc.
(Original size 16½ by 10¾ double-page spread, in color)





A modern business can be successful only if it provides satisfaction to the consumer, pays fair wages and salaries to its employees, and returns reasonable earnings to the owners.

Figure 2. Reproduced from 19th Annual Report of General Mills, Inc.

danger of getting out of control. The annual gesture of reporting to the employee is an effort to create the impression that the employee's interest and curiosity should be satisfied, and that if he is not interested and curious he should become so.

It does not follow that all companies and all company executives are eager to take all employees into their confidence and tell them what

goes on in the inner offices. It is easy to find organizations in which the employee is expected to do his work and ask no questions. But the general trend toward cooperation, and the efforts to break down or minimize the employer-employee barrier appear in many phases of business management. Annual reporting has been accepted by many companies as one of the most effective methods of accomplishing desirable ends in employee relationships and personnel management. The report itself is not adapted to every kind and size of company; in some businesses it would be completely inappropriate. The attitude which the report reflects, however, is desirable in all business.

Content

The content of the report to employees is the same as that in the report to stockholders. The method of presentation varies greatly, however. Expert attention has been devoted to ways and means of improving the report.

Personnel Listing

If lists of names are used in the report, usually they are limited to major officers of the company and the board of directors. Frequently the board of directors is both listed and explained; that is, the individual name is followed by a statement of the man's other positions and connections, the length of his association with the company, and similar information. The assumption is that the important industrial person is not so likely to be known to the typical employee as to the typical stockholder; consequently, the official position of the person should be stated.

Financial Statements

To the worker, as to the investor, the essence of company accomplishment and condition is reflected in dollars and cents. The report to employees therefore contains financial data, usually in the form of a balance sheet, supplemented by a statement of earnings.

The treatment of financial statements, particularly the company balance sheet, has been given a great deal of careful attention by both professionals and amateurs who have prepared and advised on reports to employees. If a consolidated balance sheet is difficult reading for a stockholder, who has examined numerous annual reports and is more or less familiar with high finance, it is more difficult for an employee who has little or no background in complicated financial matters. At the same time, if the report is to accomplish its purpose, the reader must get a fairly definite idea of the financial structure and the

financial condition of the company for which he works. Therefore, one of the major problems of the report is the clear presentation of the financial condition of the company.

In many reports the solution is the president's letter to employees, in which, even more than in the report to stockholders, he comments on and interprets the financial data which appear elsewhere in the report. For the data themselves, however, three methods of treatment have been worked out and are widely used.

The first method is that of *interpretation*. The balance sheet, for example, is supplemented by charts and by written explanation which help to make it understandable. The result is a unit made up of the financial data and the explanatory items. Page arrangement and coordination of material are usually as important and as carefully worked out as are the financial data.

The second method is *translation*. So far as figures are concerned, the balance sheet is the same as that in the annual report to stockholders, but the specialized accounting terms are translated into phraseology that is within the experience and understanding of the employee. Frequently a sentence is used instead of a single word. "Assets" becomes "What We Have," or "What We Owned on March 31, 1950"; "Liabilities" becomes "What We Owe," or "What Our Obligations Were on March 31, 1950." The following phrases, completed by figures, are typical items taken from several reports to employees: "Customers owe us for goods we sold to them . . . ," "Land, buildings in which our employees work, machinery, tools, fixtures, and furniture used by employees in the manufacture and sale of our products . . . ," "We have cash in banks in various cities, used to pay wages, to purchase raw materials and supplies, and for other expenditures . . . ," "To pay taxes to federal, state, and local governments . . . ," "We owed employees for accrued wages, commissions, and salaries, which are payable on regular dates when due . . . ," "To be returned to customers on return of empty drums, cylinders, and carboys . . . ," "Accumulated wear and tear on our machinery . . ." These phrases obviously are not the language of the accountant or the statistician; but they are the language of the average person, because they correspond to the terms in which he thinks and talks about his own finances. Consequently, when it is translated into nontechnical language the financial page takes on a familiarity which it otherwise would not have.

The third method, often combined with one of the other two, is the *per employee statement*. This device is the simple arithmetical process of dividing a company financial figure by the number of employees, and thereby reducing a company total to a per employee unit.

The per employee figures are frequently used in the interpreted or translated balance sheet, set up in a parallel column. The advantage of this arrangement is that it presents all of the figures in brief space, and emphasizes the contrast between the company total and the employee unit. For example, the company's cash assets are $3,885,190.56; per employee that impressive but incomprehensible figure is reduced to $580.34.

The per employee column has two advantages in terms of reader interest and reader reaction. It breaks down large figures into small ones within the employee's grasp because they are within his range of experience. To the average employee, a figure like $23,485,923.17 has no more tangible meaning or reality than has the national debt figure. On the other hand, $372.65 has both meaning and reality, because the employee can understand and visualize it; he has that much money himself, or he knows someone who has that much. In the second place, the small figure lends a personal quality to the company finances, and tends to establish a feeling of individual identity with the balance sheet of the company. The reaction probably is seldom if ever a conscious one; the employee probably does not say to himself, "I represent $372.65 in company assets." But the emphasis is in that direction. In some reports the personal element is emphasized further by an effective column heading. One illustration is, "This column shows how much of each item of our assets is invested per employee. It is this investment which makes each employee's job possible."

President's Letter

The president's letter in the report to employees differs from the corresponding letter in the report to stockholders in style and atmosphere, extent of explanation, distribution of emphasis, and topics discussed. In the more elaborate reports the letter is often the most conspicuous and effectively prepared item.

The style and atmosphere may be impersonal, but often they are personal to a high degree. An effort is made to create the impression that the president is writing to the individual employee, taking him into the presidential confidence, and telling him the status, progress, and prospects of the company for which they both work. This effect is deliberately cultivated by such devices as a picture of the president at the beginning of the letter, the president's signature at the end of the letter, and statements such as the following: "I have just completed my annual report to our stockholders. Now I want to make a similar report to you who work here, just as if I were talking to you." There are many ways of developing a genuinely interesting, informal atmosphere in a

letter which is informative but highly readable. The limitation of this development of atmosphere is, of course, the fact that it must ring true; it must fit in with other impressions and ideas which the employee already has about the president of the company.

The content of the letter is variable, depending on the company and on the topics which need discussion from year to year. There is always comment on and interpretation of the financial data which appear in the report. Typical topics are the structure and organization of the company, current company problems, sales, prices, wage payments, products, employer-employee relations, the outlook for the coming year. Another group of topics has to do with the general situation of which the company, and therefore the employee is a part: trends and conditions in business and industry, and how they affect the local company; general industrial and national problems, and their effect on the company and the employee; the general outlook for the coming year. Presented effectively, any combination of topics can become an interesting and informative letter; and can accomplish the double purpose of giving the employee a report on current conditions, and of continuing his education toward the thinking and standards which the employer considers to be desirable.

Miscellaneous Material

Content supplementary to the kinds already discussed usually takes the form of text, pictures, and graphic items designed to convey either general or specific information to the reader. General information may be about company organization, branches, equipment, or products. Specific information usually concerns special developments during the past year, local features and employee services of the company, factors which have a direct bearing on the present and future condition of the individual employees.

Presentation of Material

Since the reading and study of the report to employees is optional with the employee, and since the report is expensive to prepare and issue, the content of the report must be so presented as to get itself read, or the report will not accomplish its purposes to justify its existence.

Appearance is of major importance in stimulating reader interest. Only by being attractive can the report get the reader's attention and hold it long enough to build up not only interest but definite satisfaction and pride in the company.

Ease of reading is equally important. If the employee is to go through

the report it must look easy to read, and must prove to be easy to read as he goes from page to page.

Both of these requirements are met by a skillful and flexible use of a number of report-writing devices. Typical are: (1) page setup to attract attention and to facilitate the reading process; (2) presentation of material in small units that can be seen, read, and understood easily and quickly *as units;* (3) conspicuous headings for sections and parts of sections; (4) rhetorical questions phrased from the reader's point of view, and answered by the text paragraphs following; (5) pictures, used to add interest and to convey information, as well as to break up the page arrangement; (6) graphic illustrations, used to summarize, simplify, and dramatize material, as well as to add interest and variety; (7) typographical devices such as type sizes and faces, and combinations of colors of ink.

Follow-up

It is fairly common practice to use some definite, systematic follow-up to make sure that the employee has given careful attention to the report; and to make sure, further, that he has received the right impressions from it, and arrived at the right conclusions.

Follow-up may take any one of several forms. Articles, boxed notices, and editorial comment in the employees' magazine are commonly used, especially if the report itself has appeared in the previous issue of the magazine. Supplementary material may be distributed in the form of a folder of additional information, or a check sheet of quiz questions on the report. They may be distributed by departments, posted on bulletin boards, or enclosed in pay envelopes. Still another way is a supplementary oral report at the meeting of all employees, or selected groups of employees. The report is submitted by an official of the company, and the meeting ends with a question and answer period. This type of meeting is highly regarded by many companies as a means of reinforcing both the information and the implications of the annual report; and as yet another means of cultivating desirable employee attitudes and morale.

Whatever the form of the follow-up, it serves the same purpose and reflects the same managerial attitude as does the report itself. Both the report and supplementary emphasis indicate a desire on the part of the employer to make the employee feel that he is a part of the active life of the company, that his function is as important to the well-being of the company as is the function of the employer, the stockholder, or the supporting public. Whether this desire on the part of the employer is genuine or artfully cultivated, whether it is self-motivated or forced

upon the employer by pressure from labor groups, competition, or other factors, it still must be accepted as a desire, and finds expression in one of the most effective and interesting types of business written communication now being done.

Distribution of Swift's average 1946 sales dollar

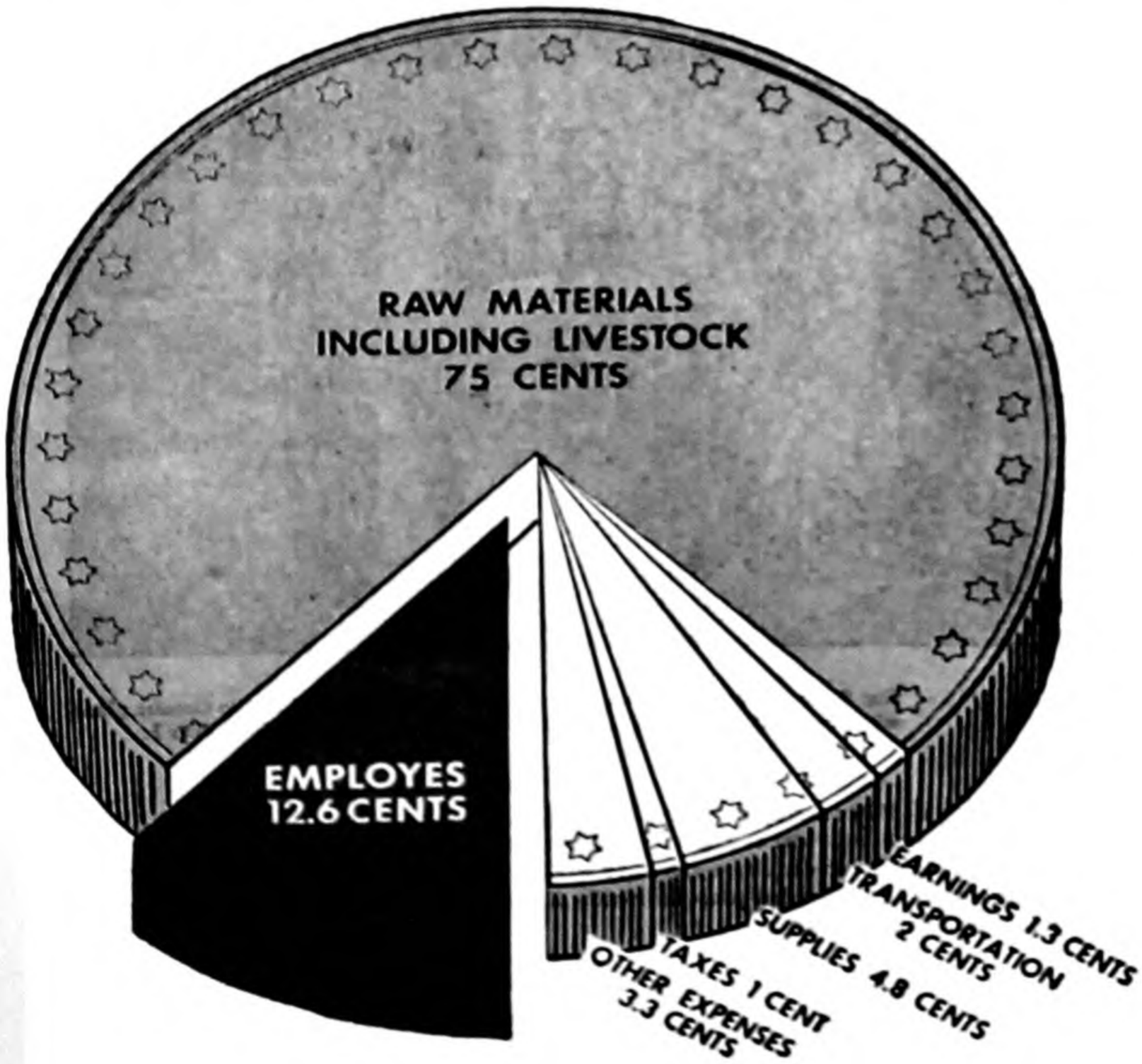
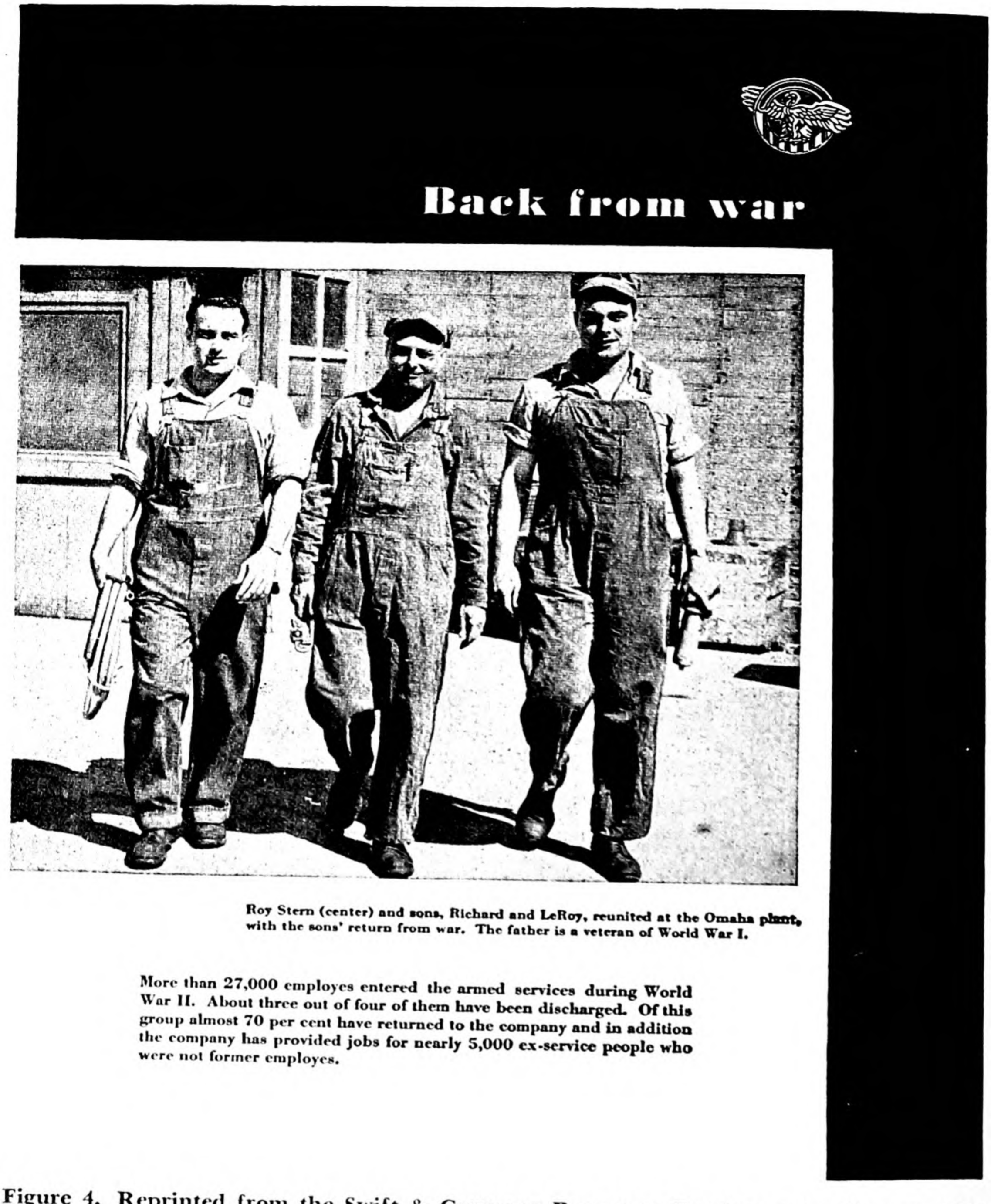


Figure 3. Reprinted from the Swift & Company Report to Employees for the year 1946



Roy Stern (center) and sons, Richard and LeRoy, reunited at the Omaha plant, with the sons' return from war. The father is a veteran of World War I.

More than 27,000 employes entered the armed services during World War II. About three out of four of them have been discharged. Of this group almost 70 per cent have returned to the company and in addition the company has provided jobs for nearly 5,000 ex-service people who were not former employes.

Figure 4. Reprinted from the Swift & Company Report to Employees for the year 1946

1946: VITAL STATISTICS

	1946	1945
EMPLOYMENT		
Average Employment During Year	15,116	22,500
VETERANS		
Total Number Reinstated	890	*440

WEDDINGS

The number of weddings per hundred employees during the year was not only nearly three times what it was in 1945 but was more than three times the average for the country as a whole.

Weddings reported in The BEAM	536	290
Rate per hundred employees	4	1.4
Weddings per hundred U. S. Population —1945		1.23

BIRTHS

Births reported in The BEAM	196	179
Rate per hundred employees	1.5	.9

PATENTS

U. S. Patents granted	29	21

The Company continued to build and strengthen its patent position. Due to the fact that considerable time is often required for an invention to pass through the patent office, many of these inventions by Sylvania engineers and others were originally filed a year or two previously.

COMMON STOCKHOLDERS	7,900	6,872

The number of Sylvania's owners has increased sharply in recent years as more stock has been issued from time to time and the money received from its sale has been invested in plants and equipment.

ON THE COVER. 15 years ago in 1931 the Hygrade Lamp Company of Salem, Mass. and the Sylvania Products Company of Emporium, Penna. merged to form the Hygrade Sylvania Corporation, which in 1942 was renamed Sylvania Electric Products Inc. The progress of the Company since that time is dramatically shown in the remarkable growth in net sales, average employment and total payroll.

* 3/1/46.

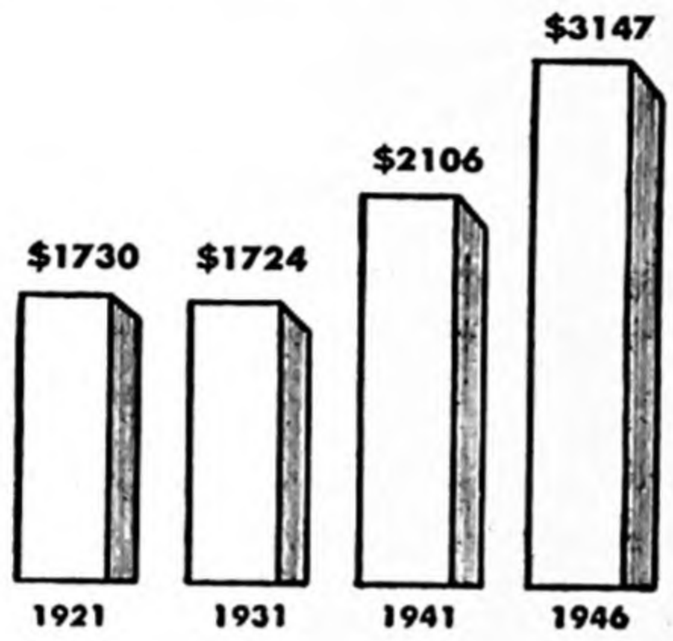
January, 1947

Figure 5. Reproduced with permission from *The Sylvania Beam*

MANPOWER

WAGE INCREASE

September, 1946, was the first month that reflected all the wage increases granted to New Haven employes earlier in the year. Computed on the basis of average straight time hourly compensation for comparison purposes — in September, 1939, the hourly figure was 70¢; in September, 1945, the figure was 92¢ and in September, 1946, the figure jumped to $1.10. This latter figure represents an increase of 19.6% from September, 1945, to September, 1946. Looked at another way, a dollar which in 1939 would pay for 86 minutes of work will now pay for only 55 minutes, straight time. The vertical bar chart below shows how the average yearly compensation per employe, on the New Haven, has risen over the past twenty-five years; it demonstrates that the 1946 wage scale is 82% higher than in 1921 and 49% above 1941.



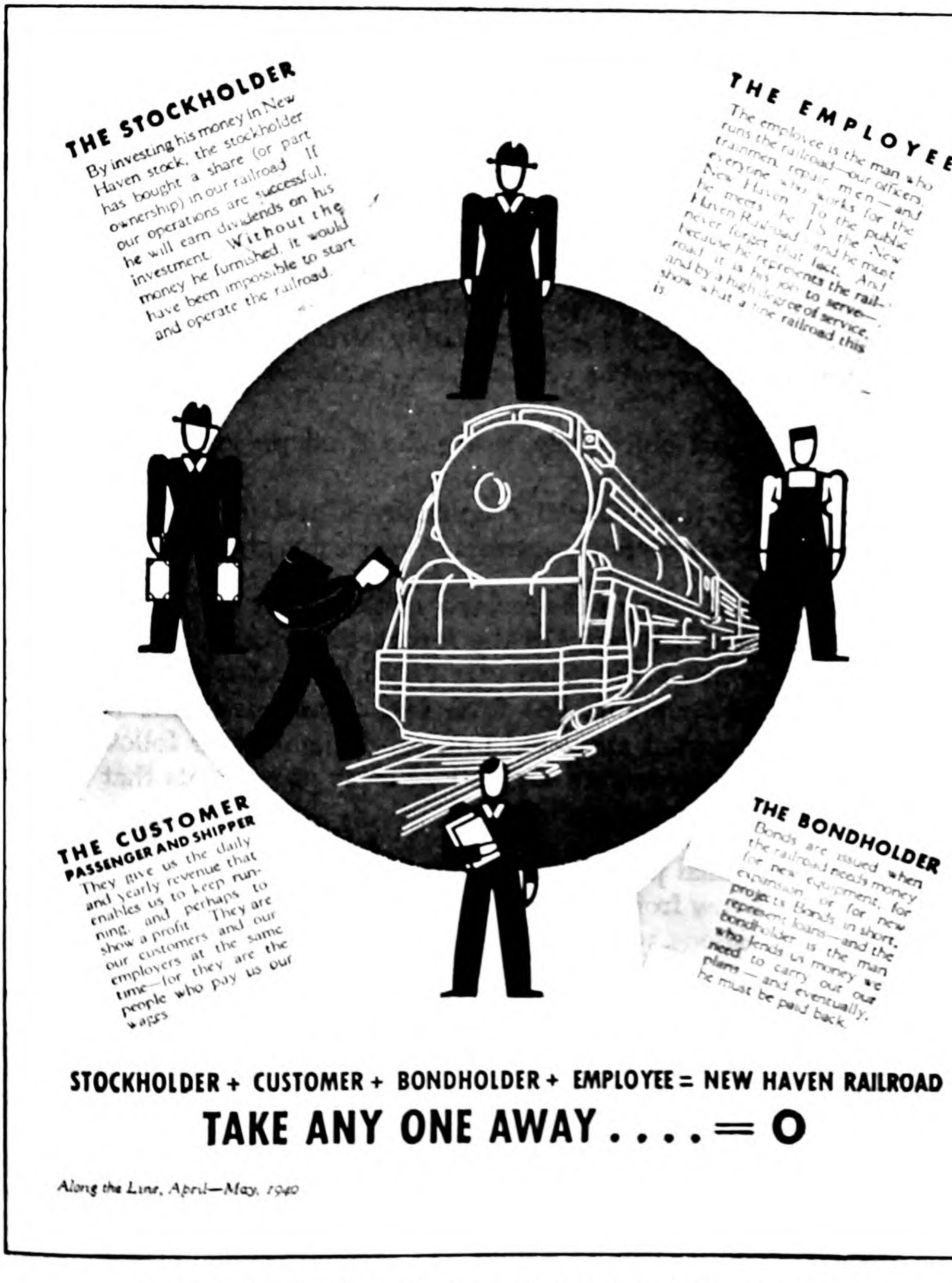
LABOR SITUATION

The New Haven, in common with other carriers, felt the effect of strikes and work slow-downs in 1946. Employment continued at virtually wartime levels, yet, work-stoppages in other industries curtailed operations, reduced the traffic volume, delayed the delivery of essential supplies and sorely needed new equipment. During the two nation-wide coal strikes that had such a paralyzing effect on all industry and caused untold inconvenience to the public, the New Haven — with its modern transportation plant — was well equipped to serve the traveling public. Extensive use of road Diesels and electrics made the O.D.T. restrictions covering coal-burning roads unnecessary in our case, thus enabling us to maintain fairly normal operations. The two-day strike of engineers and trainmen in May, 1946, disrupted service on all roads.

The average number of employes in 1946 was 27,368, and the compensation paid amounted to $86,122,932 — or 57.7% of total gross revenues.

7

Figure 6. From The New Haven Railroad's 75th Annual Report


THE STOCKHOLDER
By investing his money in New Haven stock, the stockholder has bought a share (or part ownership) in our railroad. If our operations are successful, he will earn dividends on his investment. Without the money he furnished, it would have been impossible to start and operate the railroad.
THE EMPLOYEE
The employee is the man who runs the railroad—our officers, trainmen, repair men—and everyone else who works for the New Haven. To the public he meets, he IS the New Haven Railroad—and he must never forget that fact. And because he represents the railroad, it is his job to serve—and by a thoughtful degree of service, show what a fine railroad this is.
THE CUSTOMER
PASSENGER AND SHIPPER
They give us the daily and yearly revenue that enables us to keep running, and perhaps to show a profit. They are our customers and our employers at the same time—for they are the people who pay us our wages.
THE BONDHOLDER
Bonds are issued when the railroad needs money for new equipment, for expansion or for new projects. Bonds in short, represent loans—and the bondholder is the man who lends us money we need to carry out our plans—and eventually, he must be paid back.
STOCKHOLDER + CUSTOMER + BONDHOLDER + EMPLOYEE = NEW HAVEN RAILROAD
TAKE ANY ONE AWAY . . . . = O

Along the Line, April—May, 1940

Figure 7. From *Along the Line*, New Haven Railroad magazine

PROBLEMS

1. Assume that your college course is being financed by an uncle who has required, among other things, that you submit to him a quarterly progress report.

   Prepare a report on yourself and your progress during the last three months, or during the last semester of the college year.

   Decide what information the receiver of the report would want in the report on the progress and development of an investment, and a philanthropic project. Make the report complete and self-sufficient, even to including data which the reader probably already knows. Be sure to make it more than a report on your standing in the courses which you are studying.

   Prepare the report objectively, using the third person except in the letter of submittal.

   Present some of the material graphically. Good possibilities are finances, and comparisons and contrasts of expenses, grades, activities.

2. Assume the point of view of the receiver of the report in Problem 1.

   Write a memorandum reply to the report. Criticize and comment on the report in terms of (a) coverage, (b) use of details, (c) clarity, (d) method of presentation, (e) form and appearance. Also raise any questions that you want answered in a supplementary or follow-up report, and make some concrete suggestions on improvements that can be made in the next report submitted.

3. Prepare an individual periodic report on conditions in a working situation which you know from experience. Cover briefly the routine data and emphasize suggestions, recommendations, or requests.

4. Prepare a departmental periodic report on a company department in which you have worked. Assume that the report is to go to a superior officer who wants to know the general condition, progress, and problems of the department. Select and write your material on the basis of reader needs and reader interest.

5. Examine a company annual report, and prepare a factual report on it. Cover: (a) content, (b) form and appearance, (c) purpose and value, (d) strong points, (e) weak points, (f) general estimate, in terms of function of the report.

6. Using a business company with which you are familiar, prepare a memorandum report on the desirability of issuing a company annual report to employees. Discuss: (a) need for the report, (b) results to be accomplished by the report, (c) content, (d) form, (e) method of distribution, (f) follow-up, if any. Design and work out two representative pages of the proposed report, to supplement your memorandum.

CHAPTER 7

Internal Operation Material

The term *internal operation material* covers writing used in business routine, not for any special project, nor in the interests of promotion and development, but in the ordinary day by day activity of the business organization.

This discussion does not include form sheets and cards such as those used in statistical, recording, and bookkeeping work, but is limited to types of material which involve writing to a considerable extent. The writer produces the same piece of material repeatedly for routine purposes or one that is used for the same routine purpose over a period of time.

STANDARD PRACTICE INSTRUCTIONS

In every company, directions, instructions, and statements of policy and procedure are necessary to the smooth and uniform functioning of routine. Under the term *standard practice instructions* are grouped the handbooks, manuals, and memoranda which are used to systematize and preserve routine procedure.

The material involved is *standard* in that it is initiated by the management of the company and is used without change or revision until there is some reason for change; the reason may be new conditions, a new policy or aim, or the realization that the material is defective and can be improved. The necessary writing, therefore, is infrequent, but it should be done carefully and effectively. Its importance is reflected by the uses and values of standard practice instructions.

1. *To instruct employees.* The new worker must be instructed in the general standards, requirements, and policies of the company, in order that he may become a part of the organization with a minimum of confusion and misunderstanding. Furthermore, the new worker or the worker on a new job must be instructed in the mechanics, techniques, and requirements of the work he is to do.

2. *To fix responsibility and duties, and to prevent future errors and misunderstandings.* In many working situations (especially complex ones in which a number of employees have interlocking duties and functions) it is desirable that duties and responsibilities be established and understood by everybody concerned. Through the use of standardized, written instructions, the individual worker knows his own work and responsibility. In addition, a system of written instructions enables a supervisor or department head to hold the worker responsible for errors, inefficiency, and neglect. If the instructions are written, there can be no misunderstanding.

3. *To systematize the same work done by several persons, and to correlate work between departments, and between home office and branch offices.* Written instructions are the most systematic and therefore the most satisfactory method of correlating and organizing similar or related work done by several employees in various departments or places. In many business organizations, for example, a large volume of data must be recorded, assembled, and correlated. In this and in similar situations, the instruction manual insures efficiency and uniformity of the workers' procedure.

4. *To state and clarify new orders, or changes in policy or procedure.* From time to time changes are made in existing standard practice instructions. Such changes should be written, in order that they may be correctly understood by all persons affected. Moreover, written form provides for filing and for future reference.

The two items of standard practice instructions considered here are the employee's handbook, and the manual of specific instructions.

Employee's Handbook

Definition and Characteristics

The employee's handbook brings together considerable information vital to the relationship between the employee and his employer. As most commonly used, it is given to the new employee to instruct him in regulations, requirements, and related material. By reading the handbook he gets a background knowledge of the company, and becomes oriented to the organization which he has joined. In this respect the handbook serves the same purpose as does the series of lectures or course of instructions with which many companies orient their new employees.

The importance of the handbook to the new employee is indicated by the common use of a detachable sheet inside the front cover, bearing some such statement as this: "I have carefully read and understood the

material in this handbook. I agree to abide by the rules and regulations stated here, as long as I remain in the employment of the company." The sheet is signed by the employee and given to his supervisor or department head.

Since it is largely for introductory instruction, the handbook is read and studied once. But it is kept for reference use—if the worker wants to know the company policy on wage advancement, for example, he may consult his handbook rather than consume his own and another person's time by asking questions.

Because of the nature of its material, the handbook is more or less static. After it has once been prepared, printed, and put into use, there is little or no change in content or form except as changes are made necessary by new policies and regulations.

As used by some business companies, the handbook contains only very general material. Specific and specialized information is issued in pamphlet form. There may be, for example, separate pamphlets on health insurance, retirement plan, safety rules, or other subjects that the company considers to be particularly important. An advantage of this separation of material is that the information given out separately is emphasized by being by itself, between covers; a disadvantage is that the employee is given a collection of a handbook and several pamphlets, rather than one piece of material.

Purpose and Function

The employee's handbook has four general purposes and functions.

1. *It gives practical, informative data.* The range of content is considerable, but sections from the table of contents of one typical handbook indicate the kinds of topics that may be discussed.

COMPANY POLICIES

Wage Policy, Hiring Policy, Layoff and Dismissal, Adjustments

EMPLOYMENT CONDITIONS

Hours for Work, Absence from Work, Holidays, Vacations, Notice of Leaving

GENERAL RULES

Smoking, Passes, Lockers, Cleanliness, Waste, Telephone Calls, Change of Address, Employees in Debt

SERVICES

Library, Bulletin Boards, Suggestions, Rest Rooms, Lunch Room, Purchase of Products

SAFETY AND HEALTH

Safety Organization, Emergency Hospital, Doctor's Services, Safety Rules, Safety Examination Cards, Workmen's Compensation Act, Contagious Diseases

2. *It assists in developing attitudes and standards of employee conduct.* Physical and mental habits which cannot be reduced to definite rules and regulations can be suggested and encouraged. The handbook frequently suggests or indicates a standard which the company expects.

One handbook, under the heading *Courtesy*, says,

"Your manner in dealing with others determines the impression that fellow workers and visitors get of the Company. In dealing with associates and visitors, courtesy should be the invariable rule."

In another handbook, by Spaulding-Moss Company, the section on *Telephone Technique* not only gives specific rules but includes these sections:

"The tone of your voice should convey at all times:
1. A prompt, friendly welcome.
2. Sympathetic, intelligent interest."

"Be pleasant—speak with a smile in your voice. It is easy to develop a pleasing telephone personality."

"Put interest into what you are saying. A weak tone or listless voice suggests indifference or inattention."

3. *It helps to build employee morale.* Much of the material in the handbook has the long-range effect of stimulating interest in and admiration for the company. Good will, loyalty, and a sense of identity with the company are deliberately and consciously built up. Some means are particularly effective.

(a) A personal greeting from the president of the company, appearing over his signature and creating the impression that a personal relationship exists between the president and the new employee.

(b) A history of the company, showing its growth, development, increase in prestige and power. A logical and almost inevitable reaction to this kind of material is a feeling of pride and good fortune in being associated with the organization described.

(c) Biographies, and character-personality sketches of important executives in the company. Particularly if the men are prominent in local or national affairs, information about them stimulates pride, loyalty, and satisfaction in the business relationship.

(d) A foreword that not only indicates the nature and purpose of the handbook, but builds up a friendly, family atmosphere. For example,

"The purpose of this book is to give you information regarding your job, and the opportunity offered you in this Company. It explains the rules and regulations of the Company. It tells you the things you may expect from the Com-

pany, and the things that the Company expects from you. It cannot hope to be complete, but enough has been included to give you a good start toward getting a feeling of 'at-homeness' with your new surroundings."

"You will want to be familiar with the Company's customs and policies that have built up over the years. Knowing them, you will feel more quickly at home; your opportunities to progress will be increased; your daily work will be made more pleasant; and your relations with Company and fellow employees will be harmonious and satisfactory.

"We hope you will read carefully every page of this book. By doing so, you will be taking the first step toward building that kind of acquaintanceship with your Company which results in a wholehearted willingness on your part and on their part to work shoulder to shoulder, to the continuing success of both."

Common Ground, Spaulding-Moss Company

4. *It contributes to public opinion of the company.* Since the handbook is the kind of thing the employee is likely to show to his family and friends (especially if he is favorably impressed), it may reflect credit or discredit on the company. One that shows, for example, that the company provides employee insurance and recreational facilities, and holds a liberal, friendly, and cooperative attitude toward employees, obviously implies an admirable company. On the other hand, data that indicate strictness and lack of humane consideration are likely to impress the reader unfavorably. Even the physical appearance of the handbook may contribute to an estimation of the company.

It would be straining the point to say that it is an important instrument of public relations, but it is true that many individuals in the general public form their opinion of the company, in part at least, from the appearance, content, and atmosphere of the employee's handbook.

Qualities of Effectiveness

The employee's handbook varies considerably, depending on the material available for use, the size and type of company using it, the general qualities of the employee group, and the ends which the company wants to accomplish by distributing a manual to its employees. It is difficult, therefore, to draw up inclusive generalizations; it is impossible to set up a universally useful formula. But if one grants that it should fulfill the functions and purposes already described, it follows that the effective handbook should incorporate some general qualities and characteristics.

Meaning should be clear. Since much of the material in the handbook is in the form of rules, regulations, and specific data, it should be stated clearly and developed adequately.

The handbook should be complete. Sufficient planning and editing should be done in the preparation of the handbook to insure its being complete, in terms of the available material and employee needs. The employee should find it to be really a reference book.

It should have a complete and usable index. Since the handbook is to be used as a reference book and a source of information and verification on various topics, it should be indexed. This enables the employee to find information easily and quickly, and prevents the necessity of shuffling through the pages.

Two common forms of index are the alphabetical listing of all topics discussed; and an outline form that lists related topics under general headings, the headings emphasized by italics or boldface type. Either of these forms is more logical and satisfactory than the table of contents, which lists topics in order of sequence. Unless the table of contents is very well set up typographically, it is not so easy to use as the organized index.

The handbook should be well written. Effective writing in the employee's handbook emphasizes some positive qualities, and avoids some negative qualities.

The writing should be simple, direct, and adapted to the reader. At the same time, an effort to write down to the employee's level by oversimplification inevitably builds up an impression of pomposity that is distinctly repellent. Likewise, a too strenuous effort to be friendly and intimate defeats its own end, for the result is a self-consciousness that shows in the writing.

Especially to be avoided is a flat, dogmatic style that creates a harsh, disagreeable atmosphere. Admittedly, rules, regulations, and strict company requirements must be stated factually and emphatically. It must be admitted also that many persons do not understand an order to be an order unless it is stated brutally; if the employee group is made up largely of individuals of that sort, the material must be stated in a direct, strong way, if it is to be effective. Yet even irksome regulations and requirements may be phrased palatably.

Three quotations will illustrate different ways in which the same kind of material may be handled. Allowing for differences in company conditions and employee groups, one yet senses the contrasts in general impressions, and in likely reader reactions.

"If you reach your place of work after starting time, you are late and time will be deducted. A satisfactory reason is required for tardiness. Closing time is announced by gong or whistle. No one shall leave his work until gong has rung or whistle has blown."

"Care should be used in punching these time cards, as the employee is paid for the time shown on the card. Cards must be punched in within 12 minutes after regular starting time. And they must be punched out within 12 minutes after regular stopping time. Any greater interval than 12 minutes will indicate other than regular time."

"For most employees, working hours coincide with store hours, with an hour for lunch. All employees will be ready for work in the department at the opening bell, and stay in the department until the closing bell, before making preparations to leave."

Probably the most desirable quality of style is individuality and ingenuity—the regular, usual thing said in an unusual and therefore interesting way. A department store handbook contains an introductory section on the history and growth of the company. One paragraph illustrates the bright, individual way in which the material is written.

"And why are we such a success? Excuse us for bragging, but it's probably because, first, everyone likes our service. We make it our fetish, and we ask you to help us maintain it. Secondly, we try to be as honest as the day is long with our employees, customers, and manufacturers—and we've found it a paying policy. And third, there's our quality standard. We take off our hats to no one on that score."

A hotel employee's handbook, *Statler Service Codes*, emphasizes the necessity and advantage of courteous service by cases and instances, one of which is

"A Doorman can SWING the door in a manner to assure the new Guest that he is in HIS HOTEL, where people are prompt to serve him.

"Or . . .

"He can SLING the door in a way that sticks in the Guest's 'crop' and makes him expect to find at the desk a scratchy, sputtery pen, sticking in a potato."

Obviously, this easy-going, somewhat flippant style is not adapted to all kinds of material or to all handbooks; but it illustrates one form of individuality.

In one way or another, distinctiveness of writing should be effected. It not only makes the handbook easier and more pleasurable reading, but it makes a vital contribution to the reader's total impression of and reaction to it.

The handbook should be attractive. The attractiveness of any piece of printed material depends on the time and effort spent in planning it, and on the money spent in executing it. For various reasons many companies use simple, small handbooks that do not require lavish treat-

ment. But even the small, inexpensive handbook can be made appealing in appearance, and thereby to stand a better chance of being effective. The dull, drab handbook with packed pages of fine print is grim and forbidding. The attractive one looks interesting, and the reader gets a favorable impression even before he begins to read it.

Attractiveness comes from such factors as cover design, color and quality of paper, variation and combination of type faces, use of illustrations, use of two colors of ink, interesting and unusual page designs, ingenuity and variety of pages and sections.

Even the name of the handbook is important in contributing to its general appeal. *Regulations for Employees* and *Information Book* are uninspired and uninspiring. *Your Store, Common Grounds,* and *Welcome to Our City* are individual and attractive titles.

Pictorial illustrations are especially important. They may be photographs, drawings, or conventionalized designs. Whatever their form, they break up the pages, add interest and attractiveness, and frequently add much to the effectiveness of the written material.

One handbook illustrates a number of these possibilities. A page shows a conventionalized drawing of a man and a woman, printed in green ink. Across the center of the page at an angle, in black script is the caption, "Be well groomed." Items of clothing that must conform to the standard of the company are listed in vertical columns at either side of the page. The page that contains information on wage payment is headed by a drawing of a girl opening her pay envelope, and the caption, "Oh, lovely, lovely pay day . . ." On another page, near the end of the book, are regulations on absences, leave of absence, tips, gifts. The material is set up attractively in two sizes of type. At the top of the page is a drawing of a finger with a string around it, and in script the words, ". . . we nearly forgot to tell you." At the end of the handbook appears in green ink a drawing of an owl, with the following material superimposed:

"Wise employees do not . . . smoke anywhere on the premises where specific permission has not been arranged."

"Have any part in the buying or selling of lottery, sweepstakes, or number pool tickets, or in any other gambling activities on store hours or on store property.
"Borrow or lend money; or endorse notes.
"Give evidence of the use of intoxicants before or during store hours."

These illustrations do not exhaust the possibilities, of course. They demonstrate, though, the way in which ingenuity and freshness can add to the interest appeal of the page, and to the effectiveness of the mate-

DO YOU LIKE TO READ?

All employees are urged to use the books and other facilities of the library. Whether your tastes run to best sellers or the classics . . . to biographies or adventure . . . to fiction or technology . . . you'll find what YOU like in the Library on the eighth floor.

DO YOU WANT TO BE AN ACTOR?

Then join the Filene Players. Last year they presented two plays —both of them outstanding successes.

ARE YOU A CUB REPORTER?

You'll get a lot of fun—and some experience writing for "The Echo" . . . the XXXX Employees' weekly that's over thirty years young. Every XXXX employee receives it free on Friday afternoons.

HOW'S YOUR VOICE?

We're always looking for new faces in our Choral Club. You know every Christmas we have carols on the street floor. They certainly start the day off right.

HEAR THE ORCHESTRA THIS MORNING?

It plays every morning—except when the Choral Club does its stuff. You can join . . . that is if you can toot a horn or stroke a fiddle. It's good fun and you can get a wealth of experience.

DO YOU BOWL?

Dance? Swim? Play baseball? Basketball? Ping Pong? For these or other recreations in which a sufficient number are interested there is a group, crowd or team waiting for you.

Figure 8. Page from Employee's Handbook (original page size 5 by 7)

Your pay may vary

On your salary envelope is an itemized account of the money you earn. If your envelope contains more or less than your salary rate, here are the reasons:

Commissions

If your job is selling and part of your pay is in commissions, you have this added earning opportunity. Commissions are paid the third Wednesday after the week in which they are earned. The Superintendent's Office will give you, on request, a special booklet which will help you keep track of your sales, day by day. If you should leave Macy's, there will be two weeks' commissions still due you. The Record Office on the Balcony will give you a pass to the Cashier's Office on the Thirteenth Floor where you may claim these commissions, any day after Wednesday one week from the day you leave. If you request it, commissions earned at the time you leave will be mailed to you when payable.

Commission systems are of four types:

1. Salary plus a flat rate of commission; for example, $18 salary plus 1 percent commission on all you sell.
2. Straight commission on all you sell. The percent of commission varies with the department.
3. Salary plus commission paid on a quota, or "average" basis; for example, $18 salary plus ½ percent commission up to sales quota, plus 2 percent commission over quota.
4. Salary plus a pooled commission. Under this plan, the commissions of all members of a department are placed in a common "pool" and then distributed equally.

If you have any questions, ask your sponsor.

Figure 9. ***You and Your Job at Macy's*****, R. H. Macy & Co., Inc. (original page size 5 by 7)**

rial which the page is designed to convey. Any elements of variety in appearance and design are highly important in contributing to the total appeal and effect of the handbook.

Manual of Specific Instructions

Whereas the employee's handbook contains general company material, the manual of specific instructions is made up of definite and detailed instructions that relate to a particular job. It may be a thin sheaf of typed pages, or a thick and elaborate book. The amount of material included and the detail in which it is developed depend, of course, on the nature and complexity of the job involved.

The manual is studied by the worker when he begins his new job and, like oral instructions or a series of lectures, is the means by which he gets an understanding in advance of the work he is to do. Having studied the manual and mastered the work described, the employee may file the manual for future reference, or he may return it to his department head. If the job entails complicated and variable work, however, he is likely to keep it by him constantly, and use it as a reference book. In some instances, the manual may be found in loose-leaf binder form, hanging from a hook on the corner of the worker's desk or table, and showing signs of constant use.

The manual of specific instructions is commonly used in mailing and shipping departments, in accounting and recording work, in office correspondence, and in numerous individual jobs such as machinery operation and some phases of salesmanship. In most of these uses it is designed to systematize procedure so that work will be done in accordance with company standards and desires, and uniformly by workers in different places within the company organization.

Six general characteristics appear to constitute the basis of workability and efficiency in this manual.

1. *The manual should be clear and complete.* Even if a discussion or oral explanation accompanies the worker's introduction to the manual, the information should be complete, since the worker is likely to need to refer to it occasionally, or frequently. Furthermore, the instructions should be perfectly clear to prevent misunderstandings and errors.

2. *The manual should be organized and systematic.* Organization depends entirely on planning during the preparation of the manual. If the duties and details of a job are written down as they occur to the writer, the resulting instructions may be complete but they are likely to be haphazard and unsystematic. If the instructions are listed, then organized before they are written in final form, the organization that

results should be an effective aid to the teaching function of the manual; and the manual is primarily a textbook.

Three bases of organization are commonly used, the choice depending on the nature of the job being written about.

Time order systematizes the work of the job on the basis of chronological occurrence. The manual explains the work in terms of a typical day, from starting time to closing time. Since any kind of work actually is done chronologically, this sequence is logical, and a direct means of making the details of the work clear and orderly to the worker. If the particular job explained by the manual is sufficiently standardized, and is repeated during a time period such as a day or a week, time order is the best possible basis of organization for the instructions.

Order of importance presents instructions covering operations of the job according to their relative importance to the worker. This method has the advantage of throwing emphasis on the most significant parts of the work, since they are usually explained first in the manual, and are developed in more detail than are the minor operations. It also has the advantage of convenience, since the worker finds the more important material easily and quickly.

Order of frequency lists the operations of the job on the basis of their frequency in the job routine. The advantage of this method of organization is that in learning the job the worker has impressed upon his attention and memory the operations that he will perform most often.

The method of organization in any instructions manual depends on the nature of the work and on the way in which the component parts of the job can best be systematized.

3. *The manual should be well set up and easy to read.* Particularly if it is to be used for frequent reference, the manual should be so set up that the worker can find specific instructions, especially details, with a minimum of time and effort. Having found what he is looking for, the worker should be able to read and understand the instructions easily and quickly.

This facility in use can be accomplished best by reducing material whenever possible to lists and outlines. A list of essentials always is easier to read and refer to than is a developed paragraph.

A section from a stenographic style sheet (Illustration 29) shows the listing of essential items, with brief explanations.

Illustration 30 shows more detailed instructions, used by the American Mutual Liability Insurance Company under the title "Desk Instructions." The material is set up on small sheets bound in a looseleaf notebook, which hangs on the corner of the worker's desk for quick-reference and consultation.

THE BODY OF THE LETTER

Left-hand margin Paragraphs should be blocked, not indented, and should be even with the salutation, and start two single spaces below it.

Spacing All letters, regardless of length, should be written single space, with double space between the paragraphs and double space between the salutation and the beginning of the first paragraph. Very short letters will balance properly on the letterhead if the salutation is dropped several spaces.

Spelling We do not use simplified spelling. The only exception to this regulation is the word catalog. Spell canceled with one l, enclose with e, and inquire with i.

U. O. Us Statement When written in the body of the letter it should be You Owe Us.

Numerals All numbers less than 10 should be spelled out in the body of the letter. Dates are the one exception.

Illustration 29

Forms and Other Items

Received

1. Original of Policy Declarations
2. Original of Invoices
3. Br. Off. copies of Declarations
4. Bureau Copies of Declarations
5. Branch Office Commission Card

To Be Prepared

Items to be enclosed with Policy when sent to insured:

1. Br. Office letter to Insured
2. Addressed envelope
3. Postal card
4. Accident
5. Glassine envelope
6. Identification card
7. Advertising material
8. Window envelope

Procedure

1. After the necessary enclosures have been prepared, send to the insured with the original of the Policy and Invoice.
2. Send Bureau and Branch Office copies of Policy Declarations to their respective destinations.
3. Prepare any letters of transmittal necessary.

On Commission Accounts

The Branch Office commission card should be attached to the Policy Declaration of the Branch Office securing the business.

Illustration 30

FOREWORD

You are the direct representative of the management, vested with the primary responsibility of seeing that customers are waited on *promptly* and *courteously.*

On your bearing and example will depend the attitude of your salespeople. On the attitude of your salespeople, to a large extent, will depend whether or not the customer gains a favorable or unfavorable impression of the store.

The success of the store depends on favorable customer impressions. On the success of the store depends the welfare of all of us who work here.

We are glad to welcome you as a new member of Macy's Sales Service Division.

H. E. PRESTON
Assistant General Manager,
Sales Service

← Illustration 31.
Manual for Service Managers, R. H. Macy & Co., Inc.

CASH SENT

SENT SALESCHECK | MONEY RECEIVED 40.00 | TOTAL AMOUNT 37.47

D. A. or C-T Number | Cashier's Stamp | SPECIAL ORDER Dpt. No. | Prom. Date - | Assort Ord. Date - | SALESBOOK SALESCHECK 9914-2

Dept. No. 45 | Salesclerk's No. 45-04 | Month Day 3-3 | Tel. Ord. Clerk's No -

MRS. J. L. THOMPSON
394 E. 8. ST.
BROOKLYN
APT. P.H. 3A | NEAR OR CARE OF R. H. Macy & Co. Inc.

D. A. or C-T Number | Dept. No. 45 | Salesclerk's No. 45-04 | Month Day 3-3 | Tel. Ord. Clerk's No. -

QUAN	PRINT NAME OF ARTICLE	AT	DOLLARS	CENTS
1	COAT - BLACK - 34		33	75
	136-895 TAX			34
	EXCISE TAX		3	38
			37	47
	SENDER'S NAME			
	ADDRESS			

9914-2 SALESBOOK SALESCHECK | ORIGINAL Please read reverse side | P M O Amount | PACK AS GIFT | M C NO.

M. C.: Put this Bill Part in Package

Put carrier letter on back of the triplicate.

SENT THEN TAKEN

If after completing a sent transaction a customer wishes to take the merchandise with her, refer the matter to your Service Manager who will correct it into a "Sent Then Taken" check.

When a customer wishes to take part of the merchandise purchased on a sent salescheck which has already been stamped in the tube room, call your Service Manager to help you with the transaction.

Illustration 32. →
System Book for Salesclerks,
R. H. Macy & Co., Inc.

4. *The manual should be a successful textbook.* In preparing the manual, the writer should keep in mind the fact that he is planning and writing a textbook, which will be studied and consulted as any textbook is. He should make use, therefore, of any instructional devices that are adaptable to the material being written. Some already discussed are clarity, organization, and page layout; others are methods of developing the material, especially the use of cause and effect, and comparison and contrast.

Particularly helpful for instruction is the use of illustrations. Pictures of machines and machine parts are commonly used in instruction manuals for operators of the machines. Pictures may be used with other kinds of material as well.

In a manual on travel regulations and instructions issued by an insurance company appear photographic reproductions of nine cards and report forms involved in the travel routine. It is apparent that a picture of a filled-in report sheet or voucher is a valuable and efficient supplement to a written explanation of how the sheet or voucher is to be used.

Frequently, in fact, the photograph may carry the weight of instruction, with the written explanation acting as a sort of footnote. Several well-planned stenographic manuals make effective use of photographs of completed letters, set up and written according to the standards and details explained in the manual. Through spacing and emphasis the explanation is subordinated to the illustrations.

The value and possibilities of the photographic illustration are too often underestimated; they can be adapted to practically any kind of instructional material. In addition, the written illustration has the teaching advantage of making directions definite and practical. One stenographic manual, for example, combining pictures with examples of comparison and contrast, supplements a discussion of "Conciseness" with two parallel columns of items, one labeled "Sentences and Phrases Commonly Used in Home Office Letters," and the other "Shorter Equivalents."

5. *The manual should be interesting and attractive.* Although designed to fulfill utilitarian purposes, the manual may be interesting and attractive reading. Style, page setup, quality of paper, use of illustrations are among the factors that determine the interest appeal of the manual. There is a great difference between the dull manual which makes the work seem grim and difficult, and one which is interesting.

6. *The manual should be indexed.* Since the manual is used for reference and consultation, it should be indexed carefully and completely. Both the alphabetical topic index and the grouped topic index are

used. If the contents of the manual are extensive and detailed, the alphabetical index is better because it is easier to use.

DEPARTMENTAL AND INTERDEPARTMENTAL INFORMATION MEMORANDA

The written memorandum is used extensively within companies to exchange information on routine matters. It passes between individuals, desks, departments, and groups; it varies from the informal personal note, to the formal bulletin, and from the lengthy confidential document to a form sheet on which items are merely checked.

The extent to which the internal memorandum is used varies considerably. There are, in fact, two opinions among business men. One opinion and policy is summarized by the slogan, "Say it, don't write it." The supporting arguments are two. First, talking over a matter with a business associate is more efficient than writing a memorandum to him. The matter can be discussed in detail, and ideas and facts are likely to be brought out that would not appear in a memorandum or the answer to it. A ten-minute conversation may accomplish as much as several memoranda. Furthermore, the telephone conversation or the conference frequently saves time and energy, since it eliminates dictation, typing, and other operations involved in writing. The other argument is that personal intercourse allows for an interplay of personality; in contrast to the conference, the memorandum is arid and impersonal. Many business men therefore believe that a conference not only disposes of the matter at hand, but contributes in a vital way to personnel relationships.

The opposite procedure is reflected by the slogan, "Write it, don't say it." Again, there are logical supporting reasons. One is that the memorandum obviously is more efficient if the same suggestion or order is to be communicated to several persons at the same time; it is easier to send out memoranda than to call a meeting. Another reason is that the other person may not be available, and several futile telephone calls or a wait of a day or two can be avoided by a memorandum. A third reason is similar: memoranda can be written when ideas and suggestions occur to the business man. Instead of making a note of the idea and later telling it to the person concerned, the executive can write or dictate the memorandum, and avoid the risk of losing or forgetting the good idea. This argument is often advanced by sales managers, who regard as highly important the spontaneous, creative ideas which they turn over to their subordinates. A fifth reason is that the memorandum gives permanent form to orders, records, suggestions, reprimands, and other incidental items. While they may be temporary and unim-

portant, they also may become important later. If the receiver has a memorandum, and the sender has a carbon copy of it, the matter can be referred to later and there is no doubt about what was said. A final argument is that writing forces the writer to think his material out before he expresses it, and to state his ideas more clearly and effectively than he would say them. This factor must be qualified, of course, by the fact that while some people write much better than they talk, others talk easily and naturally, but are confused and ineffectual on paper.

There is some indication that the second policy—"Write it, don't say it."—is increasing in use. But it still is true that in some companies the memorandum is reserved for important, complicated, and infrequent communications; in other companies there is a constant flow of memoranda throughout the organization.

This discussion is limited to the information memorandum. Business uses numerous standardized sheets and blank forms which are checked and filled in, and which convey information in the form of data, statistics for records, and so on. Forms of that sort are memoranda in their nature and function, but they do not involve writing.

The written memorandum usually appears on a sheet which is set up and printed for internal communication purposes. Most companies use both the half sheet and the full sheet, to avoid waste. The printed matter is limited to a heading, but the form and layout of the heading are important to the efficiency of the memorandum. Since the sheet is delivered by the internal mail system of the company, and frequently without being placed in an envelope, it is necessary that the name of the receiver be easily seen. Furthermore, from the reader's point of view and for filing and reference purposes, the placing of identification items may be good or bad.

The form given below shows an efficient layout for companies in which mail is handled by departments, and distributed within departments. The suggestion under the main heading is worth noticing as an indication of the simplicity and informality with which many memorandum forms are used.

OFFICE MEMORANDUM

Use space below communication for your reply

From ..... Dept. 19

To ..... Dept. Subject .....

Attention of Mr. .....

A layout which throws more emphasis on the persons involved, especially the receiver, is the following:

INTERSTORE CORRESPONDENCE

To ..... From ..... Date .....

Subject .....

In many companies, a large number of memoranda are passed to and among particular groups of men. A useful form is the one given below. The writer circles the name of the man he is addressing, and the sheet is sent flat and loose.

OFFICE CORRESPONDENCE

Use this sheet for all information of value to the Company. *Take a separate sheet for each subject.* Answer on the same sheet, if there is space.

E. C. Hayes	F. K. Shane	C. B. Tanner	Credit Dept.
H. A. Gale	J. W. Lynn	Adv. Dept.	Treasurer
J. R. Dunn	D. E. Ross	Shipping Dept.	Warehouse

These three illustrations are typical. Naturally, any company designs its memorandum sheet to meet its particular needs. As with any other form of business written material, however, it is important to keep in mind the fact that the form should be designed with care so that it will be simple, but usable and efficient.

The memoranda vary considerably in style. The way in which the writer states his message depends entirely on the nature of the material involved, and the relationship between the writer and the reader. Some items of internal routine business are inherently factual and impersonal; others are informal. A business man may be on a formal, reserved footing with one man in his department, and on very friendly terms with another.

Two quotations from interdepartmental memoranda will illustrate the range of content and style.

Please send me these sales figures on A. Hogan:

1. 1946 total
2. 1947 total
3. 1948 total
4. 1948 high month
5. 1948 low month

Thank you.

I hear that our competitor got the Dallas contract. Is there any reason, except the notorious inefficiency of your department? How about bringing Helen out Thursday evening, for bridge and jollification?

The first memorandum was answered by figures carried out to the right of the original sheet. The second came back to the sender with

the hand-written message, "There is, and I'll tell you Thursday evening."

Allowing for such differences in content and personal relationships, there are three characteristics of the writing of the internal memorandum.

1. The message should be stated simply, with only as much development as is necessary to make clear the idea, request, or suggestion.

2. The content should be organized and set up so that it is easily and quickly read. Long paragraphs should be avoided. Lists and groups of related points and items should be used whenever possible.

3. The style should be in harmony with the situation being written about, and with the relationship between the writer and the reader.

SPECIAL INSTRUCTIONS MEMORANDUM

A common and therefore important specialized memorandum is the special instructions memorandum. It is used for a variety of reasons: to explain new duties that are to be added to a worker's job; to give orders for the day, covering special, emergency, or fill-in work; to explain temporary changes in routine and procedure. Commonly, of course, such situations are handled by a conference between the worker and a foreman, supervisor, or department head. The memorandum has definite advantages, however, from the point of view of both the giver and the receiver of the instructions.

It enables the giver to organize and systematize his instructions, and to make sure that he has covered the subject accurately and completely. After the memorandum has been sent and put into use, he can check efficiently the way in which the worker carries out the instructions.

For the receiver, the memorandum is convenient for study and reference. The worker gets his instructions in direct and specific form, and does not have to depend on his memory of a conversation to make sure that he carries them out.

If it is to be efficient and effective, the special instructions memorandum should show two general characteristics.

1. *The memorandum should be organized.* The manner of organization develops naturally from the kind of material being written. If the instructions are at all complicated, obviously the reader can get a better idea of what is expected of him if they are systematized.

Depending on the nature of the work, one of the following methods of organization should be followed in a general way:

Time order is chronological arrangement.

Order of importance means arrangement according to precedence.

Grouping of related items works best when general and flexible instructions are given. It enables the reader to get his duties and responsibilities in mind in systematic blocks of data.

Comparison and contrast is explanation of new instructions or routine in relation to old and familiar rules. This method applies particularly well to temporary changes in methods, materials, and timing.

2. *The memorandum should give reasons.* While it is true that a person in authority can issue orders with the smug assurance that the receiver will carry them out through fear if for no other reason, it usually is worth while to avoid the arbitrary, dictatorial tone which results from unexplained and seemingly unjustified orders. One of the best ways of promoting cooperation and loyalty is to explain, if only briefly, the reason for orders, instructions, and requirements. The explanation gives the worker understanding and perspective. Possibly more important, it gives him a feeling of self-importance, since his superior has taken the time and trouble to explain things to him. It follows that he receives the instructions in a cooperative state of mind that is likely to carry over into the work on the job.

In the memorandum, then, the writer does well to give reasons for the special instructions. For example, if an employee is told that during a two-week period he will take on the duties of another employee along with his own regular duties, he will appreciate being told also why the company expects him to do extra work. Or if an employee is asked to change a routine method which has become a habit, he is likely to be resentful of change unless he sees the necessity for it. Or if a worker is instructed to assemble facts, analyze figures, or prepare a report, he undertakes the special job with more interest if he knows that it is a significant part of a larger job, and not just a superior's whim.

Of course it is not necessary for the management of any organization to justify and excuse every order and decision. But when personnel relations are important, the instructions memorandum becomes more effective if the writer takes the time and trouble to explain the necessity for the instructions. Frequently he can point out, also, the advantage to the worker himself of the special instructions—a factor too often overlooked by both the writer and the reader.

The following special instructions memorandum, sent to a market research field worker, demonstrates several points of importance. The work to be done was visualized in a systematic way before the memorandum was written. The instructions and suggestions are so organized and grouped that the worker can understand his assignment by phases and aspects. The form of the memorandum makes the material easy to

Subject: SUPERMARKET COMPETITION

You should endeavor to get as complete a picture as possible, in the time at your disposal, of the competitive situation from supermarkets and other large markets.

1. City markets
2. Large produce markets
3. Supermarkets operated by wholesalers
4. Concession supermarkets
5. Supermarkets operated by independents
6. Large markets operated by independents and chains
7. Large markets which opened and failed during the last six years.

You will have to contact all these markets and show their distribution on a base map of the city of Detroit. In studying these markets, you should pay especially close attention to the following particulars:

1. Name of the market, ownership and experience of the operator or sponsor in the field of local food distribution
2. Operating organization--wholesaler operated, independently operated, multiple units, strictly concession operation, etc.
3. Type of service—service, self-service, semi-self-service, delivery, credit
4. Number and type of departments
5. Type and quality of merchandise handled
6. Merchandising policies—price structure, type and extent of advertising, etc.
7. Days and hours open
8. Parking facilities
9. Type of building, equipment, and display
10. Date of opening
11. Change of ownership, if any
12. Operating success of the market—as best you can determine
13. Terms of concessions
14. Concessionaires--who they are, in how many markets they have concessions, etc.

The purposes of gathering all this information is two-fold:

(1) to discover the trends and developments in supermarket competition in Detroit, so that we may appraise these trends in relation to our own operation in Detroit;

(2) to gather concrete and detailed information on supermarkets in general, so that we may round out our knowledge of the supermarket problem which has arisen in the last few years.

Illustration 33

read and to understand, and to refer to later if reference is necessary. The last paragraph gives the reader perspective on what he is doing, and shows him how this project fits into the general plans and purposes of the research department of which he is a part.

SUGGESTION AND RECOMMENDATION MEMORANDUM

Another specialized form of internal memorandum is the one which an employee writes to a superior in the organization, giving a suggestion or a recommendation, usually in the form of a new idea, and related to change or improvement in procedure or policy.

Commonly, suggestions are made orally to better advantage than in writing. Commonly, also, suggestions from employees are provided for by an established routine: a special suggestion sheet which is filled out and deposited in a suggestion box; or a contest, with prizes and awards.

Whatever the form the suggestion takes, it is extremely important from the point of view of the company management, and from the point of view of the individual worker.

Management is interested, of course, in improving the business, and while wholesale suggestions result in much waste energy and frequently much trial and error, one profitable, constructive idea may make worth while the consideration of a thousand worthless ideas. A second value is that the act of making a suggestion gives the worker a feeling of self-importance, and of identity with the company. Certainly, if an idea is accepted, or an improvement put into effect, the originator derives a justifiable pride and feeling of accomplishment—reactions which contribute to his interest in and loyalty to the company. For these two reasons management generally holds an open, receptive attitude toward suggestions, and frequently encourages them by contests and by an established policy of financial rewards for accepted and usable ideas.

To the individual worker, the suggestion affords a means to impress his superiors with his energy, initiative, and creative ability. Motivated by self-interest, a desire for advancement, and an eagerness to impress the boss, the employee may, of course, misjudge his ability, with the result that he defeats his purpose by poor suggestions, or too many of them. In general, however, the suggestion is a logical and effective means of justifiable self-advertising. Furthermore, the suggestion may be a compensating factor to the worker, and may become even a mental salvation. All too often a person who actually has ability, initiative, and originality finds himself stalemated in an inferior, routine job. The

work he does is far below his capacity, and as he becomes increasingly aware of that fact, the work becomes uninteresting and the worker becomes discouraged and frustrated. By making suggestions he can work off some of his surplus energy, and can use his best qualities, which in his regular work are unused and stifled. Moreover, he may be able to demonstrate to the right persons the fact that he is better than the job he holds.

The distinguishing characteristics of the memorandum are that it necessitates writing, it is prepared at the writer's initiative, and it does not fit into any particular time scheme or contest. The employee gets an idea, works it into presentable form, and by means of the memorandum passes it on to the proper person or persons.

There are, however, several potential dangers. The writer may defeat the value of his idea and discredit himself by making a poor suggestion or doing a poor job of suggesting. He may build up a negative reputation by making too frequent suggestions, or by being too persistent and aggressive. As a result, instead of being known as the bright young man with the good ideas, he is known as the pest. He may give offense by taking his idea over the head of his immediate superior. If the idea concerns the worker's department head, it usually is poor technique to be secretive, and to take the idea directly to the company president. Finally, the writer may become offensive and defeat his purpose by assuming that the company is wrong in its policy or practice, and always would have been, except for him. Nothing is worse than brashness—creating the impression that the writer believes himself to be a boy wonder, divinely created to save the company.

With these cautions in mind, the writer should follow a general procedure in which there are four major factors.

Background

The writer should have in hand not only his creative idea but all related facts, in so far as they can be determined. He should be sure of the background to his suggestion, as well as the suggestion itself. These specific questions should be applied, and answered as definitely as possible:

Has the idea been tried before? Many suggestions that seem new prove to be old; at some time in the past they have been tried and discarded, or at least considered. The writer saves himself much work and embarrassment if he establishes to his own satisfaction the fact that his idea really is original.

Does the idea fit in with company policy and practice? Frequently, good ideas cannot be used because of the nature of the local situation.

Adoption of the ideas would necessitate changes in fundamental policy, tradition, and structure; sometimes such changes cannot even be considered.

Does the idea clash with personal prejudices of company officers? Like other men, business executives are subject to attitudes and beliefs which are largely whim and prejudice. Such prejudices may concern the spending of company money, the installing of new machines, the hiring of special employees, the changing of traditional methods, or some similar factor. A suggestion that runs counter to a local prejudice is at least handicapped.

Is the idea workable? Many good ideas are good only theoretically. If a suggestion has a practical application, the writer should try it, if possible. Even a small-scale test is valuable supporting evidence.

What is involved in making the idea work? It is important to consider the incidental as well as the primary effects of the suggestion. The writer should determine how many and which employees would be affected, and whether the idea is confined to one department, or would affect related departments. The writer is at a disadvantage if he makes the suggestions without considering carefully all of the implications and ramifications of his idea.

Support

The writer should at least consider the possibility of getting backing, support, and endorsement both within the company and outside. Discussing the idea with the worker's immediate superior often will result in encouragement and help; the superior's endorsement will give the idea weight and prestige when the memorandum is written. Fellow workers may make suggestions and offer helpful criticism, especially if the idea concerns a problem with which the workers are familiar through their own experience.

Getting local help, however, must be gauged carefully by the local situation and the people involved. Creative ideas and suggestions are valuable, both financially and in prestige and advancement for their originator. Therefore, if an original idea is talked over with either a supervisor or fellow workers, there is the possibility of jealousy and competition, and even of piracy. In view of the kind of people with whom he works, the local atmosphere, and the departmental traditions and procedures, the writer must decide whether to keep his idea to himself while he works it out, or to ask for help, suggestions, and backing.

Another possibility that should be considered is help from an out-

sider. Sometimes a suggestion necessitates specialized knowledge or technique with which the originator of the idea is not familiar. It may be worth while to go to an outsider for that knowledge, even if it must be paid for. Or it may be worth while to consult a competent outsider who knows the situation and can understand the suggestion, and to get from him an impartial analysis and criticism.

If it can be obtained, any kind of support is valuable, and can be used with good effect in the suggestion memorandum. Supporting material indicates that the writer has gone into his idea as thoroughly as possible—that it is a well-considered, carefully prepared proposal.

Organization

The form and organization of the memorandum depends on various characteristics of the company situation. In the small company, the memorandum is likely to be informal; it may be presented in person and talked over as the receiver reads it. In the large impersonal company, the memorandum should probably be formally organized and more fully developed. Another consideration is that the memorandum may be addressed to a superior whom the writer knows personally and intimately, or it may disappear into a presidential office which the writer has never entered.

A commonly used organization is the division of the memorandum into two parts:

Introduction to the suggestion

The first paragraph or paragraphs of the memorandum give the background to the idea, and justify both the idea and its presentation. The writer may need to identify himself in terms of work and experience; he may need to prove or at least to imply that he is qualified to make the suggestion. Other possible introductory items may be how the idea occurred to the writer, what method he used to work it up, what trials or tests he has made, or what endorsements he has secured.

The function of the introduction is to indicate that the memorandum is worth a careful reading because the writer is competent and qualified, and because he has considered and built up his idea before presenting it.

Logical development of the suggestion

The rest of the memorandum should state the idea and develop it logically by phases. They may be (1) need for change, details of proposed change, specific advantages of the change; or (2) suggested im-

provement, cost of improvement, ultimate saving because of improvement; or (3) suggestion, effect on workers, effect on the company; or some other sequence of the component parts of the material being written.

It is important that the suggestion be developed in a way that leads the reader's attention and interest through to an agreement with and acceptance of the facts and the central idea. The writer must regard this kind of memorandum as a combination of argumentation and salesmanship.

The development of the suggestion should be complete and clear, from the reader's point of view. The writer should remember that the idea is new to the reader, while he, the writer, has considered and thought about it until it is perfectly clear and convincing to him. He must get enough on paper to make the suggestion self-sufficient; there must be no gaps in the thinking which the writer can jump but which baffle the reader because he has not the complete background of the writer of the memorandum.

Another factor affecting the clarity of the memorandum is the reader's direct knowledge of the situation. If the writer addresses himself to an executive who is out of touch with the working situation on which the suggestion is based, it may be necessary to explain technical terms and procedures, to fill in the setting of the suggestion, or to give some similar material that orients the reader and adds to his understanding of the suggestion.

The memorandum should meet in advance the probable objections. The writer should consider his proposal from the point of view of the reader, and try to determine what questions, criticisms, and objections he is likely to raise, either in an answer to the memorandum or in a personal conference. If the writer can meet these points before they arise, he not only saves time and effort, but he is adding another element which reflects the care, preparation, and general competence with which the memorandum was prepared. It is important, however, that the memorandum not descend to aggressive argument; the objections must be introduced and met smoothly, and sometimes subtly.

The writer should place as much emphasis as possible on the value of the idea to the company. Usually he is motivated by self-interest, and is well aware that the suggestion, if accepted, may result in promotion, increased authority, prestige, and publicity for him. But he must not let self-interest dominate the memorandum. If he can demonstrate tangible benefits which the company will derive from the acceptance of the idea, he can safely let the reader draw his own conclusions as to the benefits to the writer.

Style

The style of the suggestion memorandum, like its organization and form, varies with the conditions under which it is written. In general, however, the style should be respectful and restrained, but without being humble or servile. Especially to be avoided is an impression of bumptiousness. The writer who is too sure of himself, too confident of the value of his idea, makes a poor impression. He should keep his enthusiasm sufficiently in check to be able to state his case clearly, fairly, and naturally.

Since the memorandum usually goes to one person, and since by its very nature it is a piece of sales writing, the writer should think of it as a highly personalized communication. He should know as much as possible about his reader—his likes and dislikes, point of view toward the subject, probably reaction to the suggestion and to different ways of presentation. Only by addressing himself to his reader in a personal and natural way can he so write as to make the wording a sales appeal, and therefore an asset to the general effectiveness of the memorandum.

The following memorandum (Illustration 34) is interesting as a demonstration of sound, logical organization. The writer builds up a convincing case, point by point. The reader agrees with each point, and therefore is forced to agree with the conclusion and recommendation. Also worth noticing is the specific quality of the recommendation, with its reflection of the writer's background and care in preparation.

PROBLEMS

1. Using a business organization with which you are familiar, outline the important facts about it: kind of business, location, number and classifications of employees, type of ownership and management, public relations.

   Organize and outline the material that should go into an employee's handbook, to be used by the company. Determine, and state in your outline, the purpose and function of each section of material.

   Prepare as printer's copy, one section or more of the handbook. Material well adapted to this use are the following sections: (1) message from the president, (2) historical sketch of the organization, (3) general regulations of employee conduct, (4) specific regulations and warnings, (5) facilities and services provided by the company for employees. In preparing the material, give special attention to the arrangement and design of individual pages.

2. Using a job that you have held, prepare a manual of specific instructions. Assume that the manual is to be given to and used by an employee who has no experience in the job.

Since our discussion some days ago concerning ways and means of decentralizing the location studies and having the research department again concentrate on more basic research, we have given the matter considerable thought and have also had a tentative discussion with Mr. Z to see how rapidly we could work along this line.

Mr. Z, we find, feels very strongly that we might best delay decentralization until our present program can be completed, and until sufficient man power can be trained to permit satisfactory decentralization.

Mr. Z's basic idea is one with which we all agree, of course—that the expenditure of $1,000,000 which he will make in 1948 for new and remodeled stores is not only worthy of study but requires careful advance checking of facts and unbiased investigation of markets in order to realize the maximum benefits from the expenditure.

Mr. Z does not feel that we can rapidly decentralize this fact finding and also secure satisfactory and reliable results. He feels that he still must keep a more definite check and control upon this situation than would be possible by decentralization. For example, it seems pretty well established that special appropriations have had inflated branch estimates of sales possibilities--estimates based primarily on the amount felt necessary to insure the approval of the appropriation sought. Wherever appropriations have been based on our own surveys, Mr. Z has had definite and incontrovertible facts to back his judgment of and action on the branch recommendations. If we were to pass out such work now to the branches or to the divisions, it not only would be impossible to have a thoroughly trained staff, but it would also be entirely impossible for that staff to operate so as to continue the inflated estimates now received on many special appropriations.

Mr. Z's use of our reports has satisfied him that our predicted sales figures on location studies err on the side of underestimating rather than overestimating, although the differences are not great in either case.

The work we now have on the docket as requested by Mr. Z will require our present staff for most of 1948. We are finishing Atlanta, rechecking Nashville, studying a small portion of St. Louis, starting a survey in the Kentucky border towns, have seven good-sized cities to analyze in the St. Louis and Kansas City branches, a complete study of Louisville, and a study of Madison county territory to supplement our city survey recently completed. For the past several months, these studies have been added to our program faster than we could remove them.

In view of the confidence that Mr. Z has come to have in our reports, and in view of the program he desires us to accomplish in 1948, he has asked me to submit this whole situation to you to secure your approval for additional help to complete the 1948 program, said additional help to be diverted to operate more along division lines such as you had in mind, but after a thor-

Illustration 34

ough and complete training in the present Market Research Department.

If you agree, therefore, to the soundness of this program, we need your authorization to add for 1948 two field men and one clerk to our Market Research Staff, increasing our field staff from four to six, and our clerical staff from three to four.

Estimated cost for carrying on this program for 1948 would be as follows:

Addition to regular salaries account #1234A	
2 men at $2400.00 each	$4800.00
1 clerk	1040.00
Addition to field salaries, account #123A1	
$500.00 per period	6500.00
Addition to traveling expenses, account #5678A	
$250.00 per period	3250.00
Additional sundries and field expense, #9876B	
$100.00 per period	1300.00
	16,890.00

Illustration 34. (Continued)

3. In the Dewart Men's Store, Mr. Henderson is in charge of the eight salesmen who work on the floor.
Mr. Black, an old and well-liked salesman, has been given a two-month leave of absence from the suit department, to recover his strength following a brief but severe illness. Mr. Henderson has decided that he will transfer Mr. White from the necktie counter to Mr. Black's job for the two-month period. He has made this decision because Mr. White shows promise as a salesman and, although he has been with the company only ten months, has become popular with the salesgroup and has developed a following of customers.
Mr. Henderson considers this two-month shift to be a trial period, with the possibility that Mr. White will stay in the suit department, if he is successful there.
To Mr. White the advantages of the change are that the commission and bonus credit possibilities are larger, and that the work is more interesting; the disadvantages are that he will have to confer with Mr. Black to get data on regular customers who will ask for Mr. Black, and he will have to learn considerable data and sales technique for use during only a short period of time.
Assume the point of view of Mr. Henderson, and write the necessary special instructions memorandum to Mr. White.

4. Assume that you are a sales clerk in the general provisions section of the Dacey Market. You have been on the job for four months, with the understanding that at the end of six months you will be moved to the office, to work on sales promotion.
The Dacey Market is owned by John F. Dacey, an old man who has retired from active management of the store, but who keeps interested in the business and often visits the store. In the small city in which the market is located, Mr. Dacey is an important citizen, active in civic affairs. He also is known to be proud of the business which he has built up, of its reputation and its service to the community.
You have learned that the annual Community Chest drive, just completed, failed to reach its goal. The citizens' committee in charge is trying to find supplementary means of carrying on local relief work. Mr. Dacey is a member of the committee.
It has occurred to you that the week-end surplus of perishables in the market, especially from the fruit and vegetable departments, could be turned over to the relief committee for immediate distribution to the poor.
Consider the situation carefully to determine the advantages and disadvantages of your idea to Mr. Dacey, the market, and the city. Determine also the supplementary information and backing which you should or should not obtain.
From the resulting data, select the material that should be used in a suggestion memorandum. Write the memorandum to Mr. Dacey, assuming

that he knows your position and prospects in the market, but does not know you personally.

5. Revise, improve, and rewrite the following suggestion memorandum:

To: Mr. Blair, President
From: Winthrop J. Woffington, Jr.
Subject: Increase in Responsibility

Since the company of which you are president is a large one, and since I have not talked with you individually since I was hired three years ago, I will begin by identifying myself. I am Director of Mail Service, and Purchasing Agent for the Offices Division. I supervise the work of the five mail and errand boys, and I purchase all office supplies and equipment. I want to bring to your attention the fact that I should like to have more time for more responsible activities.

As it is now, I have three of the boys on the regular mail routes through this building and to the plant in Somerville, and the other two on call for errands. A good deal of my time is spent being a third errand boy, for when the two boys are busy or out I am the one who has to do a rush job of wrapping a package or making a special delivery to one of the departments.

I recommend that another boy be added to my staff, so that I can have three on call rather than two. That would leave me free to do things that would make me an opportunity to have more responsibility, and an opportunity to show my real ability. For example, there is considerable waste of office supplies and materials, through the fault of nobody but just in the natural course of events. I should like to have time to study the situation and work out savings of supplies. Another illustration is that there are various forms in the Accounts and Records Office which are out of date and inefficient. I should like to have time to try out several of the new and more improved forms that are on the market, with a view to installing, eventually, a better system. There are various other projects which I should like to work out but I am too busy tying up parcels.

I have been with the company for three years and I feel that with my background and training, which I assume you are familiar with, it is about time for me to be advanced in importance and responsibility if not in salary.

I have not talked this matter over with the heads of any of the offices, since I decided to go directly to you. I am sure, however, that if I had the time and responsibility the heads of the offices concerned would be only too glad to let me study such things as I have described above and work out new improvements.

If this idea meets with your approval, as I hope it will, I shall be glad to come to your office any time at your convenience, and talk it over with you in detail.

CHAPTER 8

Internal Promotion Material

Internal promotion material is distinguished from internal operation material by the fact that the function of the former is to facilitate the internal operation of the company, while the function of the latter is to maintain an achieved status. The distinction is one of degree more than of kind, since much operation material is in part promotional, while much promotion material necessarily is concerned in part at least with operation. But the primary purpose of internal promotion material is to *promote*.

Through the use of bulletins, memoranda, news letters, and pamphlets, employees are provided with (1) *information* which keeps them up to date on the policies and details of company operation, and thereby increases their efficiency as workers; (2) *data and suggestions* which will result in increased effectiveness if adopted; and (3) *inspirational propaganda* which builds and promotes attitudes, standards, and states of mind which, in turn, result in increased efficiency.

The term *internal* must be thought of as applying not only to the employee and management groups of the company, but also to other groups which are related to and associated with the business organization in its operation, and which are necessary to its success. Clients, customers, subscribers, and similar groups are likely to be an integral part of business companies. Therefore internal promotion material is likely to be devoted to building and maintaining good will between those groups and the company itself. Obviously, the ultimate end to be accomplished is the increased operation, success, and prosperity of the company.

The four types of material discussed in this chapter are representative of the content, principles, and techniques required when internal promotion is carried on by writing. They are drawn more from merchandising than from other phases of business, since sales promotion lends itself particularly well to the working out of the principles and procedures involved.

PROMOTIONAL DATA SHEET

A common type of bulletin or memorandum is one sent out by a central office or a general manager to salesmen, field workers, branches, or local managers to give them routine information and, at the same time, promotional data.

The specific purposes of the promotional data sheet are (1) to announce changes of prices, special prices, and similar data; (2) to issue instructions and reminders; (3) to give useful, adaptable material such as sales facts, statistics, analyses, and comparisons with competing items; (4) to build and reinforce attitudes and mental habits. The two important principles that should be applied to the preparation and writing of this sheet are *specializations* and *simplification*.

Many writers carry specialization to the point of using a separate sheet for each idea, fact, or announcement. Making use of emphasis by display, they spread the message out so that it is easy to see, to read, and to remember. Other writers find it more convenient and economical to combine several items in one bulletin. It is always desirable, however, to keep different kinds of material separate by the use of headings and spacing. Whether the item is a fact, an order, or a suggestion, attention should be concentrated on it until the reader understands it. If other items are competing for his attention at the same time, the reader is likely to skim over all of the material without really absorbing any of it.

Statements should be clear and brief, developed only fully enough to be understood by the reader with his special background and previous information. The writer can assume a knowledge and interest on the part of the reader; he can therefore say things briefly, refer to other material, use abbreviations, and reduce his message to the essentials. The setup of the page should be worked out for ease of reading and ease of reference. For example, a series of points should be listed, to make them both easy to read and easy to memorize.

The following three illustrations show the variety of the promotional data sheet. Illustration 35 contains working information which the salesman needs. Illustration 36 announces a change and emphasizes specific points which the salesman will keep in mind and use in his talks with customers; he will absorb them as a part of his general knowledge. Figure 10 shows a simple announcement of price change dressed up to make it interesting, unusual, and surprising. This bulletin was sent to grocery store managers in a chain system and is a good illustration of routine communication combined with display appeal.

CIRCULAR LETTER NO. 20

Winner Adhesives

To prevent increase in price of Winner Paste and Mucilage, we have discontinued the tin handled brushes which have been supplied with Nos. 929 and 939.

Three courses were open to us. We could reduce the quality of these adhesives, reduce the size of the bottles or drop the brushes. We chose the latter course as the one which would affect the consumer least.

If your customers wish brushes for these numbers, we will sell them separately at a price of . . . list per gross-wholesalers price . . . net per gross. We suggest that these brushes be retailed at a cent apiece.

W. M. Fletcher-MH
March 20, 1948

Illustration 35. Promotional Data Sheet (Courtesy of The Carter's Ink Company)

CIRCULAR LETTER NO. 1

TYPEWRITER AND ADDING MACHINE RIBBON SIZES

Attached are two new folders showing width, length and interchangeability of the common typewriter and adding machine ribbons. These replace the cards which we formerly supplied on these.

Here are the new features

1. They are printed in larger type for easier reading in dimly lighted stock rooms.
2. The stock is a tough ledger stock so customers may tie them to the bin as they did with the cards.
3. This list has been revised and brought up-to-date.
4. The adding machine listing has been made up in answer to many requests from dealers and salesmen.

An adequate stock of these circulars has been prepared for your distribution to the dealers. With the next publication of the Carbon and Ribbon Catalog, one each of these will be included.

For indentification of these cards when ordering, the white card showing typewriter ribbon sizes is coded Y22 and the buff card with adding machine sizes is coded Y23.

W. R. Burns-MH
January 13, 1948
Enc.

Illustration 36. Promotional Data Sheet (Courtesy of The Carter's Ink Company)

Stop the presses! Kill the front page! Run an extra!

Thrifty Stores reduce price on that delicious Full Flavor Coffee to 2 lbs. 75¢ on Tuesday. Tell the world! There's a new low price on this famous rich, vigorous blend!

Figure 10. Promotional Data Sheet

Inspirational Bulletin

A specialized form of the promotional data sheet, the inspirational bulletin, concentrates on indirect and intangible results, rather than direct and evident results. It does not issue orders and information; instead, it attempts to build up and to reinforce the kind of attitude and the kind of thinking that are necessary to the best possible functioning of the reader-worker. In sales management and in other promotional work, this bulletin is subject to varied opinions and appraisals.

At one extreme is the manager who does not use written communication for inspirational purposes. His point of view is that ideas and attitudes can best be developed by personal conference and discussion. He emphasizes the fact that the critical or warning bulletin is a danger-

ous instrument, because it goes to the worker who is away from the home office and his associates, alone in a hotel room, and is, therefore, subject to misunderstanding, fear, and apprehension. The contention is that it is almost impossible to state messages, particularly negative ones, so that they will be effective in the way intended.

At the other extreme is the manager who depends heavily on the inspirational bulletin. He prides himself on his ability to create ingenious, unusual, stimulating bulletins; and by various means he can trace their results in increased efficiency, net sales, and other practical managerial factors. Usually this type of manager specializes in dash, verve, and high pressure in both his written and his oral tactics. He tends to bombard his subordinates with topical, seasonal, and general messages, and he considers them one of his most effective methods of accomplishing results.

Between the two extremes are many managers who use the bulletin within limitations and for special purposes. Before they send out a message they are convinced by careful consideration that written communication is the best means of doing what needs to be done at the moment.

A number of factors determine whether in any individual group the inspirational bulletin is used intensively, slightly, or not at all. They are the personality, methods, and theories of the manager-writer; the kind of business being conducted; the personality and temperament of the readers; and the relationship that exists between the writer and the readers.

Purposes

When appropriate and well used, the inspirational bulletin can accomplish or assist in accomplishing many specific purposes.

It can motivate and stimulate activity in the reader.

It can stimulate reader thinking; that is, it can suggest an idea which the reader thinks over and incorporates into his working philosophy.

It can cultivate desirable and necessary attitudes toward the company, the company's products, salesmanship, workmanship, or even toward the writer.

It can promote competition among the members of the reading group.

It can develop group feeling and identity.

It can be used to issue veiled orders and threats; or to administer indirect discipline to a few members of the group, without singling them out for personal attention.

It can be used by the manager-writer to cultivate personal relations with his subordinates; to assert his authority and enforce his ideas; and to enhance his prestige by demonstrating his creative talent, ingenuity, and managerial ability.

In relation to all of these purposes it is important to notice that the inspirational element is generalized rather than specific. Almost never does the writer expect immediate, dramatic responses to his messages; the reader does not spring into action and do something which can be credited directly to the bulletin he has just read. Instead, the results of the reading are long range; they build into the ideas, standards, ideals, and attitudes of the reader. Essentially, the bulletin is educative, and adds to the reader's mental and emotional development just as any educational process does.

Composite Mind and Personality

If the bulletin is to be effective, it must interest and appeal to its readers. A sales force, or any other group, obviously is diverse and heterogeneous, since it is made up of individuals of varying ages, backgrounds, and experience. In so far as he can, the writer should strike a common denominator for the group and, on the basis of his knowledge of the individuals, establish in his own mind a composite mind and personality to which he writes.

A single reader reacts to inspirational material in his own way. He admires, agrees with, and is affected by the idea, or he is either apathetic or antagonistic. His reaction is determined by such personal factors and qualities as age, extent of formal education, general level of intelligence, type of personality, extent and kind of business and social experience, moral and ethical standards. His reaction is conditioned further by the way he responds to complexity or simplicity of written messages, obviousness or subtlety, platitude or originality, vulgarity or dignity. Since it is difficult to know one person well enough to be sure in advance that the message will affect him in the desired way, it is obviously much more difficult to know a group well enough to gauge their reactions. In practice the manager knows his men from personal associations: meetings, conferences, exchange of letters, and social activity. Unconsciously he builds up an awareness of how his men respond to different ideas, kinds of material, and methods of presentation. Without being able to define or describe it, he is able to address the composite mind and personality of his group skillfully and effectively. Often, however, the writer must consciously analyze and appraise his reading group before he writes to them.

Weak Characteristics

Allowing for the great variation in readers and reader responses, one still can identify points at which the inspirational bulletin is most likely to go astray; that is, the points at which the writer is most likely to misjudge his group. The following characteristics, therefore, should be carefully considered in relation to any policy, and in connection with any single piece of writing.

1. Too frequent bulletins. Salesmen and other workers soon become bored by a flood of material from the boss and the home office, and therefore in unconscious self-defense, build up a resistance to appeals.

2. Too long memorandum. The writer must remember that his bulletin reaches the reader when he is busy, or is tired at the end of a day's work. Regardless of the quality and value of the idea contained in it, the long memorandum always is handicapped by the time and effort necessary to read it.

3. Overeffort to be different and spectacular. In this type of writing, as in any other, the stunt appeal is effective only if it really works. If it fails, it fails badly, and is almost certain to create a hostile reaction.

4. Too much suggestion of authority. Since in written communication the snapping of the managerial whip cannot be offset by personal factors such as facial expression and tone of voice, the bulletin should use with caution material that reflects and emphasizes the writer's authority, prestige, and position.

5. Too much high pressure. Some groups like and respond to vivacity, excessive optimism, and bubbling enthusiasm; other groups are repelled. In his effort to be personal and individual the writer is tempted to put on more literary pressure than his readers can absorb.

6. Wrong style. Always the style and manner of writing must be adapted to the readers, and be appropriate to the other impressions that the readers have of the writer. Style easily gets out of hand, and becomes either too elevated and refined or too chummy and breezy to fit the group being written to.

7. Too many ideas at once. Since the purpose of the bulletin is to suggest or emphasize idea material, the content should be simplified and specialized. Diffuse instruction always is weak instruction.

8. Overdevelopment of ideas. If the writer is convinced that his message is significant and vital, he is likely to develop it and repeat it until reader reaction goes into reverse. It is easy to underestimate the intelligence and receptivity of the reader, and to belabor a point until it becomes tiresome and unattractive.

Strong Characteristics

The positive qualities which assist the inspirational bulletin in accomplishing its purpose are easy to identify; unfortunately, they are not easily inserted into a piece of writing by conscious methods.

1. Attractive appearance. The bulletin should look interesting and profitable even before the receiver begins to read it.

2. Individuality. This very subtle quality should be evident, but without any straining for effect. The reader should get the same vivid impression of individuality that he gets from a talk with the manager.

3. Right length. The bulletin should be long enough to make the ideas register, but not so long as to overdevelop them; that length never can be established in number of words or pages, but must be judged by the writer.

4. Right balance between extremes. The manager usually tries to be personal and more or less intimate, but he cannot afford to write in a way that breaks down the necessary relationship between him and his subordinates. Consequently he must maintain the right balance between such extremes as authority and friendliness, and dignity and informality.

5. Sound writing. Except in unusual situations, the bulletin should be respected by the reader as a piece of written communication. The writer should use the style, grammar, punctuation, and phrasing that serve his purpose, but that also conform to the ordinary decencies of language use. Deliberate misspellings, bad grammar, and a general assumption of semiliteracy are fairly common devices for making the bulletin unusual and amusing. They are stunt appeals which may be very effective, or may fall flat and lower the reader's opinion of the writer's good judgment and good sense.

6. Exact gauging of the reaction of the reading group. The manager may write a bulletin which goes to fourteen different men. To be in any degree inspirational, the bulletin must somehow create the impression in each reader's mind that the boss was thinking of him and writing to him. This effect can be accomplished only by a skillful appeal to the composite mind and personality.

The following illustrations show varying content and methods. They were used with different groups for different purposes. Try to visualize the kind of reader and the kind of group with which each bulletin would be effective; conversely, visualize the reader and group which would be unaffected or antagonized by the bulletin.

PERTINENT QUESTIONS FOR YOU

Do you outline each evening your work for the next day?

Do you go into your prospect's place of business determined to secure his application before you leave?

Do you go in with the feeling that you are doing a greater work than he is unless he is in the life insurance business?

Do you ask yourself when the interview is over, (in event of failure to close) "How and why did I fail?"

Do you fortify yourself against failing again the same why?

Do you secure the names of the applicant's brothers and near relatives for future interview?

Do you make at least ten calls every day and actually work six days a week?

Do you keep in touch with your policyholders and sell them insurance again and again?

Do you work a carefully prepared program for the year, month, week and day?

Do you hold yourself strictly to rigid regulation as to the expenditure of your time?

Do you post yourself in advance about those you intend to see?

Do you keep yourself physically and mentally fit in fighting trim?

Do you take note of marriages, deaths, business changes, new organizations, successes and failures as a means of enlarging your prospect list?

Do you refuse to permit disappointments to discourage you?

Have you absolute faith in the value of what you offer and do you buy as much life insurance yourself as you suggest others should do?

HAVE YOU SOLD YOURSELF ON THIS PROPOSITION?

DO YOU WANT SOME MORE MONEY?--THEN GET BUSY WITH YOURSELF AND STUDY YOUR PROSPECTS' NEEDS!

Illustration 37. Inspirational Bulletin
(Courtesy of The Prudential Insurance Company of America)

"I HAVEN'T GOT ANY MONEY."

How much insurance has that remark kept you from selling?

Have you got the names and addresses of all the prospects who have used it as an excuse?

If you have, you've got a swell prospect list right there.

F'RINSTANCE:

. . . . . .

"Mr. Prospect, if you haven't any money, at least you have the satisfaction of knowing that there are a lot of people in the same boat."

"As a matter of fact, there seems to be an epidemic of it--just like the influenza epidemic."

"And speaking of epidemics, what are the two things a man thinks of when he has contracted something epidemic?"

1. HOW TO GET OVER IT, AND

2. HOW TO KEEP HIS WIFE AND FAMILY FROM GETTING IT.

"So, you see, Mr. Prospect, it's just another case of having a prescription filled and TAKING YOUR MEDICINE."

. . . . . .

Illustration 38. Inspirational Bulletin
(Courtesy of The Prudential Insurance Company of America)

THIS LITTLE PIG WENT TO MARKET SO THAT YOU COULD BRING HOME THE BACON

ARE YOU GETTING MAXIMUM BACON BUSINESS?

We know the answer - it's NO. This is a pointed case of poor management because bacon business is exceedingly profitable business, and it is steady business.

Bacon sales can be boosted when you make up your mind to do it. We have seen it done. Recently the Joplin store sold 463 lbs. of bacon in one week. It wasn't a miracle that did it. The manager simply wanted to see how well he could do, got his creamery man enthused - and did it. And since this store does most of its dairy business on Friday and Saturday during a tremendous rush, it was determination and constant suggestion that turned the trick.

A picture not so pretty is that of one store that sells $538 worth of creameries a week but only 30 lbs. of that business is done on bacon. This, unfortunately, is the picture in many stores. It's ridiculous.

Bacon is a staple item that you should be selling in steady volume. You have a definite problem on gross profit on dairies. Let's do something about it. LET'S GET THE BACON BUSINESS. Cooler weather allows you to display bacon on the counter. Keep it in view prominently, and suggest it constantly.

Here is what your approximate bacon business should be:

Total Dairy Business	Bacon Business
$100.00	33 lbs.
250.00	85 "
500.00	167 "
1500.00	500 "

We know that many of you come nowhere near these figures, but we would like to see you start shooting for them now. They are average figures within your reach. This increased bacon business is the answer to your gross profit problem.

S 9/28

Illustration 39. Inspirational Bulletin

B-5 April 29, 1942

BUSTER BRAND SPECIAL

WENTWORTH SALESMAN DOING FINE CLEAN-UP JOB!

WATERTOWN, CONN. APRIL 27 (AP) There is a war in Europe, and there is going to be a war on all flies and insects over Jim Nye's territory, if he continues to arm his customers with BUSTER BRAND INSECT SPRAYS and DISINFECTANTS.

Jim believes in preparedness, and has lined up his trade with BUSTER BRAND PRODUCTS—all ready to go into action whenever the enemy appears.

In a telephone conversation with HEADQUARTERS today, Jim made the following report:

"THAT BUSTER BRAND SPRAY IS GOING OVER BIG. IT'S A 'CINCH' TO SELL. YESTERDAY I CALLED ON TWENTY-ONE ACCOUNTS AND SOLD BUSTER BRAND TO NINETEEN OF THEM—BELIEVE IT OR NOT—YOU CAN LOOK AT MY ORDERS. THIS MORNING I HAVE MADE SEVEN CALLS SO FAR, AND HAVE SOLD BUSTER BRAND TO ALL SEVEN.

"PLEASE SEND OUT TO MY HOUSE TONIGHT 100 OF THOSE PAMPHLETS WITH THE COLORED PICTURES OF THE INSECTS. ALL MY CUSTOMERS WANT ONE OF THESE PAMPHLETS. IF I CAN'T TALK THEM INTO AN ORDER—THESE PICTURES OF THE INSECTS WILL SCARE THEM INTO GIVING ME ONE. TELL THE MEN TO BE SURE TO SHOW THE PAMPHLET TO THEIR TRADE. IT'S JUST THE THING FOR GETTING A CUSTOMER'S ATTENTION."

EDITORIAL

If Jim can do it, WHY CAN'T YOU? Everywhere over your trade, there are opportunities for selling BUSTER BRAND INSECTICIDES AND DISINFECTANTS. There isn't any article in our line that can be sold to so many different customers—new or old.

The Speare specialty men are getting over our territory as fast as they can. A few days with each salesman is all they can spare now, but this will be sufficient to give you all the sales information and experience you will need to sell these products.

DON'T WAIT FOR THE SPEARE MEN!
GET STARTED NOW!

YOUR CUSTOMERS ARE JUST WAITING FOR SOMEONE TO SELL THEM THESE INSECTICIDES.

IT SHOULD BE Y O U! ASK THEM FOR THIS BUSINESS.

Jim Nye got 19 out of 21.

THERE IS A SIMILAR OPPORTUNITY TODAY FOR YOU!

M. S. Swain

Illustration 40. Inspirational Bulletin (H. A. Johnson Co.)

"I Am the Boss"

Everybody works for me.

I am the big boss.

I tell the salesman what to do, and he obeys.

I am the salesman's boss.

I invade the sacred precincts of the headquarters office regardless of office hours, previous appointments, or golf dates.

I tell the head of the business what to do.

If he wants to stay in business, he obeys me.

I tell the buyer he is wrong and tell him to his face he has made a mistake, which no salesman ever dares to do.

I am the buyer's boss.

I tell the fruit and vegetable department they are making a mistake and to prove it I let the stuff they tried to sell me lay and rot. And they pay attention to me when I walk out of the store and next time they will be more careful of bargains.

I am the boss.

Everything that is done today in this business is done because I have ordered it done that way.

Everything that I want done in the future will be done at my command.

I am the boss of your boss, the boss of you, and no one can boss me.

"I Am the Customer"

Here, stated forcibly and simply, is a principle you should never lose sight of. You can re-read this several times to your own advantage.

E S M 9/7

Illustration 41

EMPLOYEES' MAGAZINE

The employees' magazine is a news sheet or a fully developed magazine which is prepared and issued at regular intervals by a business company for distribution among employees. In form it varies from an inexpensive mimeographed sheet or sheets, to an expensive magazine in the "slick" class. In preparation and personnel it varies from the simple system in which one person is responsible for it and writes it single handed, to the highly organized system in which a board of editors is supplemented by departmental reporters and other contributors. It may subscribe for syndicated releases and carry advertising ranging from employees' "personals" to full-page displays of nationally-known products.

In business organizations where it is used as a part of the general personnel planning and management, the employees' magazine has two purposes. The first is to motivate and cultivate employee interest. That interest may be directed (1) to fellow employees, (2) to the company and the executive group of the company, (3) to company products, activities, and developments, (4) to the field of industry in which the company operates. The reason for cultivating these interests is fundamentally educative; that is, the managerial desire is to develop in the employee a knowledge of and interest in material that will make him a more useful, because a better informed, worker. The second purpose of the magazine is to cultivate employee attitudes that are desirable or necessary from the point of view of the management of the company. Standards of loyalty and attitudes of enthusiasm, gratitude, and pride are encouraged indirectly.

The method and area of circulation vary considerably. In some companies the magazine is distributed to all employees; in others the circulation is limited to a few groups and classes of employees for whom the magazine is specifically prepared. Some magazines are sold to employees; many are distributed without charge. A supplementary area of circulation is various groups and kinds of people outside of the company personnel. Most of the magazines issued by large companies go regularly to an extensive mailing list of customers, friends of the company, and interested members of the general public. This kind of circulation is, of course, in the interest of public relations. A further step in the same direction sometimes is taken; if the company is staging a special publicity campaign, the current issue of the employees' magazine is sent to a carefully prepared list of outsiders, to show them the kind of policy and the kind of material that are typical of the company.

Content

An examination of large and small employees' magazines shows some kinds and types of material used consistently for specific, apparent purposes.

Material about Employees

Since the magazine is for and usually by employees, the most conspicuous content is material about the employees themselves.

Personal material ranges all the way from serious items and articles on the accomplishments, records, and professional activities of employees, to news, jokes, gags, and hints about the personal life of employees. The purpose of any form of personal material is apparent: it pleases the employee who gets publicity and attention; it stimulates reader interest, since employees are interested in the possibility that they and their friends may get space in the next issue; and over a period of time it creates the impression that the individual employee is important from the point of view of management; that is, the employee is important enough to get attention and page space.

Material on Employee Group Activities

The employees' magazine is a convenient and logical place in which to publicize announcements, reports, and news stories on such diversified employee activities as lectures, bowling leagues, baseball teams, and annual picnics.

Contests and Competitions

To build up employee interest in the magazine, and especially carry-over interest from issue to issue, the editors frequently organize and run contests and competitions. They may be camera contests, or the ever-popular quiz and guessing competition. This kind of material has the advantage of encouraging employee participation in the magazine content; it also builds up considerable personal interest, since the employee may be interested in how he came out in the contest, how his friends came out, or even who won.

Messages from Major Executives

This kind of material usually takes the form of seasonal letters and messages at such times as Christmas or the company anniversary; or topical messages on company problems and crises, or general events in business and in the nation.

One important purpose of such messages is to convey the impression

that the president or other major executive has a personal, man-to-man interest in the employee group, and wants to tell them his sentiments. ideas, and conclusions. Another purpose is to build up respect for the executive writer. A general purpose, of course, is to contribute to the development and maintenance of the kind of employee thinking and morale which are desirable from the executive point of view. The greatest tact, however, should be employed in these matters.

Educative Material

Educative material may take the form of editorials on company activities and policies; articles on company products, finances, developments, and policies; editorials and articles on business, politics, national and international affairs. Frequently even company historical sketches, employee reminiscences, and factual articles on employees are used for indirect educative purposes.

All such material is designed to contribute to a general company educational plan. It may merely convey information about the company and its policies, to the end that the employee is better informed and better oriented than he was before he received and read the magazine. On the other hand, it may build up attitudes, beliefs, and standards which are intangible and long-range, but none the less important.

Educative material often is handled in the form of a campaign, although usually it is not so labeled. Such themes as labor relations, employee health, insurance, efficiency, even personal morality and the use of alcohol are developed, emphasized, and reemphasized not by a single article or editorial, but by a series of articles, editorials, boxed notices, and pictures. Any campaign has the advantages of emphasis and development from different points of view, and emphasis by repetition and restatement.

Magazine content which is essentially employee propaganda should be carefully and intelligently used. It should be timed and spaced so that the reader does not get the impression that he is being bombarded with ideas and appeals. It should be short and simple; it is better to understate than to overemphasize. It should not be too obvious, or too high pressure, or too paternalistic, since any of these qualities can make the educative article or editorial into a boomerang—it annoys and repells the reader rather than giving him the idea and impression that the writer intended.

The common tendency to be unnecessarily grim and forbidding, to talk down to the employees, and to overelaborate the theme should be avoided. In the employees' magazine, as elsewhere, education must have at least a thin sugar coat.

Departments and Columns

As a means of attracting attention and developing sustained interest, the department and the regular feature column have the same values that they have in commercial magazines. The reader becomes familiar with and interested in the content of the feature and the style and personality of its writer. Consequently he has at least that specific basis for advance interest in future issues of the magazine. Departments and columns are used for professional and technical data, odds and ends of information, interesting facts about the company, questions and answers, employee gossip and rumor.

The handicap of any department or column is the consistently high standard that its writer must maintain if the feature is to continue to appeal to the magazine readers, and build up a reader following. If the writing is done by a capable and ingenious person, who carries on the feature as a satisfying hobby rather than just as a chore, the material is likely to be as interesting and valuable as any part of the magazine.

Recreational Reading Material

A supplementary type of material sometimes used is fiction, poetry, interesting factual material, and jokes, used for no other purpose than to provide recreational reading and to add variety to the magazine content. In addition, however, this material provides an outlet for employee contributions, and thereby increases employee participation in the magazine.

Characteristics

Regardless of the size of the company or the simplicity or lavishness of the magazine issued, some qualities and characteristics should be built into the employees' magazine, if it is to accomplish its purposes and justify its existence.

Careful Planning and Editing

Any magazine should be started and continued with a clear understanding of its purpose and function to the employees and to the company management. If a magazine cannot accomplish something definite it probably is only justified as a good will gesture from the company to its workers.

The magazine should be under the direction of individuals or a group who have training, competence, or at least interest in magazine planning and editing. It is not necessary that they be professionals, but it is desirable that they have some knowledge of the work they are doing, and some interest in it.

The magazine should be prepared and issued in conformity to a defi-

nite plan and editorial policy. A weak magazine is one which gives evidence of having been put together in a haphazard way by people who had no enthusiasm for their job. A weak page in a magazine is one which obviously has been made up of filler at the last minute.

Planned Style and Form

The employees' magazine should establish and maintain a style and form which is consistent, and which is appropriate to the company. It may be informal and unpretentious, serious and substantial, smart and sophisticated, or journalistic. Whatever the particular form of the magazine, it should be a recognizable one which the readers are aware of and can look forward to in future issues.

In general, the magazine should be published as expensively as possible. Kind of paper, method of printing, use of color, and similar factors make the difference between a varied, interesting magazine, and the dull, limited one. Publishing budget necessarily depends on executive decision, which in turn is determined by funds available and by a consideration of the probable return on the investment in the magazine.

The minimum requirement as to form and style is general consistency, with variety in detail from issue to issue. Page make-up, cover, illustrations, headings, and special pages can be made varied and interesting even in the simplest and least expensive magazine.

To create and maintain reader interest, and to make the contents readable, the magazine should be attractive. Appearance appeal is derived from the design and details of the magazine as a whole, and from individual pages. Even in simple magazines, appearance factors are controllable: page setup, use of pictures and drawings, use of varied type sizes and faces, use of color, use of varied paper stock.

Personal Items and Pictures

A sound editorial policy is based on the fact that the larger the number of personal items an issue contains and the more individual employees mentioned, the more employees and employees' friends and families who will be interested and pleased. Consequently, the magazine should use as much personal material as possible.

Pictures have several values. They facilitate effective and interesting page layout; they illustrate and reinforce copy; they add interest to pages and to the whole magazine; and, if they are pictures of individuals, they have the same value as written material on employees.

The most popular type of picture is personal. Pictures of employees fall into recognizable groups: (1) workers at work, at desks or machines, (2) workers at play—vacation, company outing, hobby activity, and home shots, (3) executives, especially in informal poses—

fishing, gardening, vacationing—to demonstrate that the boss is a regular fellow, too, (4) engaged and married employees, (5) employees' children—the new baby, the school prize winner, the costume party winner, (6) feature pictures, a common form of which is sets of contrasting pictures of employees as babies and as they now appear.

Pictures of the company plant, distant company branches, machines, and products can be used for educative purposes; they may show a section of the company which the employee never sees but in which he is interested—the inner office, the research laboratory, the boiler room.

Pictures of general interest may be used for popular appeal or art value. Nature pictures, pictures of current events and of people, and pictures of things of beauty fall into this class.

All of these kinds of pictures can be used with an almost unlimited variety of size, position, method of reproduction, and correlation with written copy. In the well-edited magazine they are used as integral parts of the content and design; they never are used merely to take up space.

Emphasis on Employee Contribution

If local conditions make it possible, the magazine should be *by* as well as *for* the employees. Employee contributions should be encouraged by an announced editorial policy and by special contests and rewards. Contributions may take the form of pictures, drawings, personal experiences, articles, poems, news.

The disadvantage of an open-door policy on employee contributions is that the material may be very sparse or very copious. Furthermore, if the magazine editors must discard many inappropriate and mediocre contributions, the rumor is likely to develop that injustices are being done, or that the desire for contributions is only a pose.

A common compromise between the magazine written entirely by a few individuals, and the one in which any employee can get anything printed, is the system under which the magazine is prepared by a large board, each member of which is responsible for a section or kind of material. The board often is supplemented by news reporters and feature writers in the different departments of the company. By use of this system, a large number of employees feel identified with the magazine, and get pleasure from seeing their names in by-lines and credit statements. The problems of the large staff are the same problems of coordination, delegation of responsibility, and personal relations that appear in the management of any group; they are problems which can be handled by a central committee or an editor, acting as the final authority in the running of the magazine.

Published by Lever Brothers Company, Lever House, Cambridge, Massachusetts, for all Lever employees of Lever Brothers Company, the Pepsodent Division of Lever Brothers Company, and Harriet Hubbard Ayer, Inc.

THE Lever Standard

AUGUST 1947

VOLUME 19 NUMBER 7

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Editor EDWARD J. O'LEARY

Assistant Editor JEANNETTE GRIFFIN

Art Director STUART BRATESMAN

OUR COVER PHOTO

Cleg Wilbur, of the Research Photographic Laboratory, Cambridge, accompanied us to the Edgewater Plant to do the picture sequence for the Electrician's Safety story. George Rutter proved a most affable and capable model. Earl Howarth, assistant chief safety engineer, did the preliminary work and assisted us with the photography.

We have been persuaded by some of our more literate friends that a table of contents should be a part of our masthead. We have prepared this page, with Stuart Bratesman's assistance, that you may tell at a glance what appears herein. Fatuously we disdained using such a guide in the past, under the impression that Lever people read the magazine anyway. Whether they do or not, this new honor will henceforth be a permanent addition, if not a feature, of your publication.

• • • • •

One of our readers stopped by the other day to ask why we don't feature the hobbies of employees as we have done in the past. One of the reasons for abandoning this feature was that, during the war years, not only was there a scarcity of materials, but time was also a factor, and those of us who were not in uniform took an active part in home-front activities.

We should like to resume this feature. If Lever employees would like to drop us a note and tell us about their hobbies which they would like to share with other employees through our magazine, we should be happy to do stories on them. If you haven't a hobby of your own, write in about the hobby of a fellow employee, in case the latter is too absorbed to tell us.

• • • • •

A most gratifying letter was received at Lever House a short time ago. The Committee on Human Relations of the County of Los Angeles wrote that they were favorably impressed by the fine sentiment expressed by Aunt Jenny on one of her programs. In fact, they requested copies of the script in which constructive statements were included.

These statements had to do with the customary, helpful and inspiring quotations which Aunt Jenny uses to end her daily broadcasts, particularly encouraging tolerance.

Lever people throughout the entire organization will be pleased with the commendation of this committee.

Figure 11. An Employee Magazine Published by Lever Brothers Company

THE MACY GAZETTE

VOL. 6—No. 11 MACY'S NEW YORK October, 1947

POOH'S IN THE BIG STORE, AS WINNIE AND CO. ARRIVE FROM ENGLAND, FIRST STOP MACY'S

A small, enthusiastic, imaginative boy views the animals go round and round. Later he opened the windows so the "animals won't suffocate".

A world famous delegation of distinguished visitors from England slipped quietly into New York on the Queen Elizabeth a few weeks ago. Locked in a trunk, they were hidden from their fellow passengers throughout the voyage, and their arrival was unnoticed. The arrivals were Mr. Edward T. Bear, better, and more affectionately known as Winnie-the-Pooh, and his inseparable companions, Kanga, Piglet, Eeyore and Tigger. September 21th to September 29th these original playthings of Christopher Robin were exhibited in Macy's Toy Department, where they lounged in their locked case along with first editions of their stories, and were ooh-ed and ahh-ed at by many of New York's youngest.

Winnie-the-Pooh, which E. P. Dutton & Co. published in 1926, has run through 199 printings, and there are few children in America who have not made its acquaintance. This same Christopher Robin, whose toys have been so immortalized, is now finishing his studies at Cambridge, England, but his father's (A. A. Milne) famous children's books have been treasured in American homes since they were written, and hundreds of thousands of reproductions of these original animals have gone to bed in the cribs of a whole generation of Americans. Winnie-the-Pooh is not merely a teddy bear; he is the most famous and remarkable bear in English literature. And because Kanga, Piglet, Eeyore and Tigger are toys that Christopher Robin played with, and because they helped inspire two children's classics, no other animals in the world can be quite like them.

In honor of the arrival of these honored visitors, E. P. Dutton and Company announced the publication of four new Milne children's books illustrated in color by E. H.

(Continued on Page 15, Column 3)

MACY'S IS "FIRST IN NEW YORK" WITH VITAVISION—FIFTH FLOOR STUDIO OPENED TO PUBLIC ON OCT. 6

MACY PARADE DUE IN 50 DAYS

Thanksgiving isn't just another holiday in New York City. The Pilgrims started it, but Macy's added the finishing touch 23 years ago by making it the day of The Parade when the first Macy Thanksgiving Day Parade swung down the streets of New York.

Over 400 volunteer Macyites and scores of professional entertainers will rise at dawn on November 27 and make ready to march in costume at 10 A.M. from 72nd Street and Central Park West to 34th Street. The streets, once again, will be lined from curb to buildings and the buildings themselves will bulge with excited children and parents. At the first sight of the tremendous policeman balloon leading the Parade from high overhead, the crowd will carefully balance itself and prepare to ogle in awe the delightful Macy extravaganza.

The balloons this year, beside the representative of "New York's Finest", will include a pirate, complete with eye patch and wooden leg; a colorful gnome; a pumpkin; a giant panda; and a man on a flying trapeze. All look like miraculous toys, made as large as possible, and then blown to gigantic proportions.

The floats, designed under the expert guidance of Louis Kennel, will show in comic impudence a hobby horse, a tin man, a merry-go-round, an Old Woman in a Shoe, an Indian head, Peter Rabbit, an elephant standing on a tub, Three Little Pigs, Humpty-Dumpty, a rocket ship, a scarecrow, and finally, Santa Claus in the flesh, greeting his children both young and old.

At approximately 11:30 A.M., the parade will arrive at 34th Street, Santa Claus will descend from his float, and the crowds will know officially that with Thanksgiving Day half over, the Christmas season has begun.

Don't Forget: Christmas gifts for servicemen overseas must be mailed between October 15 and November 15 to assure their arriving in time for Christmas. In this, our third peacetime Christmas, don't forget the men overseas.

Once more Macy's scores a *first*, this time a *world first* with the October 6 opening of Macy's VitaVision Studio on the Fifth Floor. VitaVision portraits, obtained through a new three-dimensional photographic process for the commercial portrait field, will be exclusive with Macy's in New York for one year.

A process which brings "photography to life, and life to photography", VitaVision is the result of a quarter century of intense research and development. Revealing a feeling of contour and solidity, these portraits must be seen to be appreciated fully. With this in mind, VitaVision experts flew a three-dimensional camera to Hollywood where famous photographer, Paul Hesse, photographed Ingrid Bergman, Barbara Stanwyck, Abbott and Costello, and other stars, for the three-dimensional shots that are now on display in the Fifth Floor Studio, Broadway Building, 35th Street side.

Accommodations for 60 Per Hour

Comprising two camera rooms, a make-up room, and make-up removal room (VitaVision portraits require a special make-up), the studio can accommodate up to 60 people an hour. While the customer is removing make-up she is shown two proofs in two-dimension, and can make her choice immediately. The finished three-dimensional portraits will be delivered one week later. Portraits can be ordered in sepia finish, in sizes 5 x 7, 8 x 10, or 11 x 14; or in color in sizes 8 x 10 or 11 x 14. Specially designed picture frames, including rear-illuminated frames for transparencies will be featured here, along with three-dimensional pictures for decorative purposes, and lampshades and lamp bases featuring three-dimensional picture designs.

For customer convenience, appointment booths with a direct line to the Studio have been set up on the Street Floor at Herald Square, at Macy's-Parkchester, and at Macy's-Jamaica. First week customers are rating special attention, receiving their make-up applications from an expert Hollywood cosmetician.

Figure 12. Reprinted from *Sparks*, the Macy Magazine

ALONG THE ESCALATOR

Lena Flastman of 10 W Receiving had high praise for her Canada vacation. She relaxes here on board the steamer "Manitoba".

RECEIVING NEWS

14th FLOOR RECEIVING—M. KAMMER: This column is in honor of our regular SPARKS reporter, Mildred Kammer, who celebrated her birthday this month. Mil is our Squad Head and is well liked by all on the 14th Floor (including George, who thinks she's tops!). She is much too excited to write this column so her so-called step-ins are the twosome gruesome, introducing Mary Giovannello and Marie Troccoli. While we're on the subject of birthdays, happy birthday Wally, Millie, and Marie. We welcome Mr. Langbehn to our Floor and hope he likes us. Welcome home, Mr. Lane. Glad you had a nice vacation, and we realize now how much we missed you. Congrats to Alice Tucker on her 25th Anniversary in Macy's. Due to your shock and our surprise in writing this column we are sorry we haven't much to say this time. Mildred Kammer quotes: "I think I am really sticking my neck out by letting Marie and Mary write this column, but I promised not to snoop at what they wrote, so this is just to say I am not responsible for anything in this month's SPARKS.

16th FLOOR RECEIVING — RUBY EPPS: Well here I am again. And what news I have! First of all we can breathe easily again, as Charlie Wanderer's "bundle from heaven", a seven pound boy, Robert, by name, finally made his appearance. Speaking of visits from the stork, Henry Hernandez is now a grandfather. Congratulations to two very nice people. Birthday greetings to Avion (school boy) De Lagarde and George Bradley. Pete Brady paid us a visit after completing his basic training as a "gob". The navy fattened him up, and his hair is growing back, after that hideous hair cut. Ugh! . . . Alas, we lost three of our gang: Frances Williams, Billy Germano, and Johanna Bradley. We miss you all. Good luck. "College Boy" (Marty Zweig) is our new "fashion plate" now that Billy has left us. John Milo has the nicest dimples. They are really wasted on a man. Do we have celebrities on our floor! Paul Guzzardo is a "dead ringer" for Andy Russell. Wonder if he sings? (I mean Paul, of course) . . . And now for the important announcement that I promised you: I am now a member of "the third finger, left hand" club. Yes, those are wedding bells that you hear in the distance.

18th FLOOR—JOHN RADER: Congratulations and success to Patrick John Favosino, Executive Supervisor, he surely rates it. Notice the sparkle in Vincent Milea's eyes when you mention his nephew, whom he calls "Water-boy". When he sees a boat he gives out with a Hono-Hnoo! Yolanda Revola and Ethel Janssen are both in a rush tournament getting plans ready for their coming weddings. Lots of luck to both these happy go lucky gals! Congratulations to Murray Winkler who became Squad Head. Richard "Clancy" please open the door now that you are an old married man. The honeymoon is over. What do you think of Catherine's leaving her salary envelope on a flat with her money in it. Who found it? None other than her side kick, Sarah O'Connor. Catherine, stop going around giving us heart failure.

We didn't know until after the SPARKS report was turned in that our Yolanda was presented with a beautiful gold wrist watch from her future husband for her birthday. We asked her how old she is, and she said the watch tells time and not age.

They've all handsome, and they've all grandchildren of Rose Morrow of the Basement Tuberoom. From left the youngsters are Allen Asher, Norman Morrow, Barbara Asher, Barry Morrow, and Edward Schoolland.

Mary Pasciucco, longtime SPARKS reporter who writes the "Clinking Coins" column, proudly presents this snapshot of her mother and small nephew, Peter.

CLINKING COINS

By MARY PASCIUCCO
TUBE ROOM

History reminds us that Columbus discovered America. And we hear that some of our fair cashiering lassies have also been discovering this amazing America, too, on their vacations. Anne Provenzano was seen sightseeing in Ohio and Kentucky, while Doris Shaffine saw the wonders of nature while vacationing up in the Catskills. It seems that Mary Stern has taken Horace Greeley's advice literally, to go west. Her colorful post cards assured us that she had a grand time touring to and in California for a few weeks. Mary Wetherall's hearty laugh was heard on the sands of sunny Florida as she enjoyed her vacation there, "in the swim". That beaming smile on Mrs. Maguire's face these days tells us she has a new grandson at home. Our congratulations to the happy folks! We'll be missing two happy faces these days in the Tube Room. Jean De Grottle is in the Chinaware Department on the Eighth Floor as a saleslerk, and Anna Trella has gone selling, too, on the Fourth Floor. Our best wishes for a successful future, girls! We are happy to see Sadie Varga back again after her illness.

May Smith, formerly one of our D.A. stampers in the Tube Room, has left us to tackle her new selling assignment in our Jamaica Store. The girls gifted her with a lovely pearl necklace and they wished her every success in her new work. . . . Well folks, this is all the gossip your wandering reporter could glean in time to go to press, after a pleasant three week vacation trip down South. She is still talking about the grand time she had in Florida, in quaint St. Augustine, the oldest city in the United States, and at Daytona Beach. There she was seen sight seeing in New Orleans and browsing through the quaint novelty shops in the French Quarter. She also said "hello" to Atlanta, Richmond, and Washington, D. C. before she finally arrived in New York, to stay until vacation time draws around again.

PACKING NEWS

By TERRY SPECIALE
7th FLOOR PACKING OFFICE

SUB-BASE: Well here we are again with news and views of the Sub-Base. Three of our boys, Dineen, Del Angelo, and Gaines, have passed the Police Exams, and are now ready to start a new career when they are called. Good luck, fellers! Cavan beat Kerry, and the Kerry boys are still sore. Wonder if they bet kicks. Lots of luck, Paul, on your marriage. We all wish to welcome back Mrs. Kelly after her illness. We miss your pleasant company when you are not around. It looks like "Haircut Week" is almost due again, so get ready for the ordeal, boys. The $64 question for the week: "What causes Mr. Burleigh to breathe so heavily after climbing one flight of stairs?" The $34 question: "Why does Mr. Schwartz comb the top of his head before he leaves the Dept.?" Answers next month.

UNIT 03: We wish to extend our sympathy to Rose Horowitz upon the loss of her father. We also would like to congratulate her on becoming the aunt of twins. Both of them are boys. This is the opportunity to say that we are very happy to see Miss Mioncalvo and Frances Podlinderty back after two weeks of illness. We welcome all newcomers to Unit 03.

BASEMENT UNIT 05: By the time this issue is released, Dorothy and Josephine

Figure 13. Reprinted from *Sparks*, the Macy Magazine

STUDENT ENGINEER FROM INDIA VISITS RESEARCH LABS

As a supplement to his study for a Ph.D. in electrical engineering at the Cruft Laboratory, Harvard University, Mr. Margit Singh, India Exchange Research Fellow, visited the Sylvania Research Laboratories in Flushing, N. Y. As the guest of Dr. B. S. Ellefson, Director of Central Engineering Laboratories, and Dr. R. M. Bowie, Manager of the Research Laboratory, he was escorted through the spectrographic, radiometry, electron optics and other departments at Flushing.

He is a member of a group of native Indian scholarship winners who are contributing to making India more self-sufficient in the electronic field. The Flushing visit was the first of a series which will include the Company's plants and laboratories at Bayside, Emporium, Salem, Towanda, Boston and Buffalo (Colonial).

MINARD, MEN'S CLUB PRESIDENT

Harry C. Minard was chosen President of the Sylvania Men's Club of Towanda at the election meeting held in the club room in June. In addition, the following officers were elected: James R. Corbin, Vice-President; Hershey J. Towner, Secretary; and Harold Q. Sherman, Treasurer. Chosen for the Board of Directors were Harry Minard, Harry Van Auken, G. Victor Potter, Francis Saxe and Francis Pierce. The first act of the new President was to schedule a meeting for the discussion of a program to create more interest in the club and increase its membership.

PEN PALS IN PERSON

For fifteen years Marian Ritchey of the Filament Dept., Altoona, carried on a correspondence with Marie Schroeder of Chicago, Ill. The two had never met, however, until last month when Marian spent a few days of her vacation with Marie in Chicago. During the visit the two discovered that while Marian was working with the tubes that were made in the Altoona Plant, Marie was working in an experimental laboratory where the proximity fuze was tested by the Navy. Heeding government warning, the two, despite all their correspondence during the war, never let any inkling leak of what type of work they were doing.

NEW R.M.A. PRESIDENT

Vice-President and Treasurer of Sylvania Electric. Max F. Balcom, was recently elected President of the Radio Manufacturers Association. Active in the Association for the past 12 years, he served two separate terms as Vice-President and has been a member of the board for the past 5 years. During the war and reconversion periods he represented the Association in joint effort with government agencies to expedite radio tube production. Among his other official R. M. A. capacities were Chairman of the O. P. A. Radio Tube Manufacturers Industry Advisory Committee and Chairman of the R. M. A. Surplus Disposal Committee.

SEE HERE! *Andy Mulieri of the Boston Electronics Plant is wearing another pair of safety goggles to replace the ones on the sign above rather than an eye patch. This safety precaution paid Andy off with his eyesight when a flying steel fragment from a faulty tool bit smashed into his goggles and shattered the left lens. This prevention of an accident helped the Boston Electronics Plant to win first place for two consecutive months in the Massachusetts Industrial Safety Contest. Bob Hogan, left, Personnel and Safety Supervisor inspects the goggles with Andy.*

CREDIT UNION CHANGES

Earl R. Knowlton of Boston St., Salem, recently transferred to New York, has resigned as Assistant Treasurer of the Sylvania Employees' Credit Union. Allan Benjamin has been elected to this position. Fred Lane and Charles Rackliffe have replaced Angus MacIntyre, Chairman of the Auditing Committee, and Eileen Dooley, member of the Auditing Committee.

RADIO SETS COST LESS THAN TEN YEARS AGO

Despite a marked trend toward higher cost of living, the price of the average home radio has dropped in the last ten years in terms of real wages, a survey by Sylvania indicates. In a statement to the Radio Parts and Electric Equipment Conference held in New York, Frank Mansfield, Sylvania's Director of Sales Research, revealed that while it took the typical worker 2.56 weeks' earnings to purchase the average radio in 1936, last year 1.25 weeks covered the cost.

ENGLISH BRIDE WORKS AT PRODUCT DEVELOPMENT

Though she misses her mother's "trifle," steamed apple pudding and roast beef, Mrs. Arthur Morton of Driftwood, Pa., stoutly declares that you just have to get over being homesick.

Mrs. Morton who works in the Product Development Section of the Emporium Plant is from Boston, Lincolnshire County, England. She married Pfc. Arthur Morton in the Wesleyan Chapel, Rushen, Scotland, while he was with the 8th Air Force. After a year and a half of separation, she was able to obtain passage to New York on the bride ship "Bridgeport." First of 499 other brides down the gangplank, she met her husband and headed for his home town, Driftwood, where they now live.

DON'T LET IT HAPPEN TO YOU

A recent list of disabling accidents in Sylvania plants in the Eastern area included the following misfortunes:

—A man caught his leg between a wall and a power driven transfer. This caused a compound fracture.

—Strained back from lifting garbage pails.

—A secretary strained her back trying to open some windows.

—A man adjusting some pipe caught his finger in a milling machine causing a compound fracture of the finger.

Figure 14. Reproduced with Permission from *The Sylvania Beam*

315 have "graduated"

—why don't you enroll?

NOT to be outdone by the many technical schools throughout educational Southern New England, The New Haven Railroad can proudly point to its own batch of "graduates" — the 315 forward-looking employees who recently completed courses organized under our Technical Training Program.

The program was described in our May, 1947, issue in an article by R. Blake Russell, Director of Training. During the latter part of 1946 and the first six months of 1947, eight maintenance subjects were taught in 21 classes, meeting in Boston, Springfield, New Haven and New York.

The classes were conducted without charge for all employees who wished to attend. Each group met, after completion of the day's work, for a two-hour period twice a week. Depending upon the subject matter, the courses varied in length from 40 hours for Air Conditioning of Passenger Cars to 126 hours in Signal Maintenance

Although some who registered were unable to complete the required number of hours for various reasons, 315 employees qualified for certificates of accomplishment which were presented at the end of the courses.

All of those who attended are to be commended for their interest in increasing their knowledge of the equipment with which they work.

A list of the employees who were awarded certificates for 1946-47 appears herewith:

NEW COURSES PLANNED

With the assistance of the General Chairmen of the crafts concerned, Technical Training classes are being organized for the coming season. These classes will be open to all employees interested in increasing their knowledge of the equipment with which they work.

Watch your bulletin board for announcements, or ask your Supervisor for information!

Figure 15. From *Along the Line*, New Haven Railroad Magazine

There Is an Easier Way

From the Diary of a "Sad Sack" Salesman:

First Day—Had to go to Boston to see some important prospects in that area. Needed a car so I took a company auto. Left New York at 8 a. m. Drove through heavy traffic until noon. Needed rest so stopped at drive-in restaurant. Lunch was poor. After six and one-half hours of tiresome, monotonous driving, arrived in Boston at 3:10 p. m. Checked in at hotel and washed up. It was 4 p. m. Day all shot to heck. Might have been able to squeeze in one interview. Wasn't in the mood.

Second Day—Saw my prospects. It took all day. Decided to wait over until next morning to drive back to New York.

Third Day—Company car broke down. Got home at 9 p. m. All tired out. THERE MUST BE AN EASIER WAY.

From the Diary of a Successful Salesman:

First Day—Had to go to Boston, so wired R. S. Robie, Inc., Motor Mart Garage, Park Square, "RESERVE CAR RAIL-AUTO PLAN 9 A. M. DST JULY 31." Went to a show and then boarded the Owl at Grand Central about 11 p. m. Fell asleep at once and when I awoke at 7:30 a. m. found I was in South Station. Felt refreshed. Ate breakfast and took taxi to Robie garage. They paid for taxi and telegram I had sent. Nice-looking late-model car was ready for me. I drove it around the city and made my calls. Had a successful day. Returned the car, went over to South Station and boarded the Merchants Limited at 5 p. m. Read the evening paper, then ate in the diner. One of the best meals I've had in a long time. I met an old friend and we had quite a talk en route. Then I dozed off for awhile in an easy chair and before I knew it we were coming into Grand Central. Arrived at 9:20 after a fast trip and went home. Felt fine.

A concise, easily understood explanation of our Rail-Auto Plan is provided in a new booklet recently published by the Passenger Department. The cover of the booklet is shown above.

The diary of the Successful Salesman is a tribute to the popular Rail-Auto Travel Plan, originated by The New Haven Railroad in 1938 and necessarily discontinued during the war. The plan has been re-established in Southern New England and is now being operated through the cooperation of R. S. Robie, Inc., New England licensee of the Hertz Driv-Ur-Self System, and The New Haven.

This unusual travel service allows the traveler the use of the railroad for long distance trips and the use of an automobile for business or pleasure at his destination. Automobiles are available for hire under the Rail-Auto Travel Plan in 17 New England cities; eight in Massachusetts, one in Rhode Island and eight in Connecticut.

The plan has many advantages which should make it popular with both businessmen and vacationists and we are asking our employees to cooperate in helping to publicize it.

Business executives and salesmen no longer have to drive their own cars or "company" cars hundreds of miles over traffic-crowded highways to keep appointments. Using the Rail-Auto Travel Plan, a passenger purchasing his railroad ticket is given a receipt for the rail fare. Later he presents this receipt to the Hertz Driv-Ur-Self System auto rental agency at his destination in order to obtain special Driv-Ur-Self rates.

The passenger should first send a prepaid Western Union telegram to the Hertz operator in the city of destination in order to reserve an automobile in advance. The cost of the reservation telegram, not exceeding 35 cents, is credited to the auto rental charge. A taxi may be used from the railroad station to the Hertz rental agency and the expense for it is also allowed by the Hertz operator, up to but not including 50 cents.

The R. S. Robie organization has a fleet of over 400 new 1946 and 1947 automobiles available to those making use of the unusual

(Please turn to Page 25)

Figure 16. From *Along the Line*, New Haven Railroad Magazine

SERVICE BULLETIN

A form of written communication which combines many of the features of internal promotion material and of public relations material is the bulletin, pamphlet, or magazine which a department of a company prepares and sends voluntarily to clients, subscribers, customers, prospects, and interested or useful members of the general public. It is commonly used as a promotional means by magazines, publishing houses, insurance companies, research groups, and merchandising companies.

Like most pieces of business writing, the service bulletin attempts to accomplish several purposes at the same time. The surface purpose is to send out news, factual data, and general material which will be of interest and of practical value to the receiver. From this point of view, the bulletin is clearly a service or philanthropic gesture. Always, however, a purpose which is at least incidental is that of building up good will among the receivers of the bulletin, through their appreciation. A third possible purpose is to help in developing the kind of attitude, habit, and belief which is important for the good of the receiver, and for the good of the company as well.

A monthly bulletin which combines these three purposes is the one sent out by an industrial insurance company to factory owners and managers, and to prospective customers. The bulletin contains data on industrial fires which have taken place, general information on fire protection, and specific, practical suggestions on factory fire prevention. To the factory manager it is a combination of interesting background information on one phase of his job, and tips which he can make note of and use. Assuming that the bulletin gives him these satisfactions, inevitably he comes to have a feeling of appreciation and obligation to the company which sends him the bulletin. At the same time—theoretically, at least—he is becoming a better factory manager because he is more intelligently informed on fire problems, and the factory is a sounder insurance risk from the point of view of the insurance company.

The only generalization that can be made about the service bulletin is that it should be of consistently high standard. To the receiver it is optional rather than required reading. It comes to him regularly in the mail, without his paying for it or asking for it. Consequently there is the tendency to underestimate it, as we underestimate anything that we need not make an effort to get. If the bulletin is to justify its existence and bring in some indirect return, it must build up standing and pres-

tige in the receiver's mind so that he has some carry-over interest from issue to issue. To be sure, he may not look forward impatiently to the next issue, but he should recognize it when it does arrive, should be at least mildly interested, and should have sufficient positive associations with the name and appearance of the bulletin to examine the new issue.

The service bulletin should be attractive in appearance; it should be so well designed and set up that it is easy to read. In most of the effective specimens of this type of bulletin, photographs and graphic materials are conspicuous. Both forms of communication add to appearance and simplify reading, especially in summaries, digests, and surveys of technical data.

The service bulletin should be as practical as possible. The reader must get the impression that it has been prepared for him alone. Therefore he must see the direct or indirect application of at least some of the content to him, his work, and his problems. At the same time, the practical, technical content should be softened and varied by material which is of general, casual, and even recreational interest.

Four illustrations of the service bulletin suggest the adaptability of this kind of writing, and the ways in which it can be made a definite part of company policies and plans.

A wholesale foods and food equipment company distributes to restaurant owners, school lunchroom managers, and other customers, a bulletin which contains recipes, economy hints, and other practical data; a general editorial letter from the president of the company; some company news; and advertising copy on company products.

A research bureau sends out a simple, conservative sheet which summarizes certain projects on which the bureau is at work, and summarizes research and business articles from other sources. The material is technically advanced and of interest only to some specialized groups of business men. The bulletin accomplishes its purpose entirely by substantial content, rather than by any effort to dress up the material or the pages.

A publishing company prepares and distributes to a long list of teachers a pamphlet made up of news and developments in the educational world, summaries of and quotations from speeches and articles, and—inconspicuously—information about books that the company publishes.

A fourth and quite different type of material is best illustrated by the magazine *Think*, issued by the International Business Machines Corporation. It is a small magazine of high quality, composed of topical articles, cultural material, and an excellent use of photographs. It cir-

culates among business executives, but no business man gets from it tips on how to run his business; he does get cultural and recreational reading.

PROBLEMS

1. Examine and analyze a specimen of the promotional data sheet. Write a memorandum report on it, giving strong points and weak points. Keep in mind how it is intended to be used, and judge it by those standards and requirements.

2. Prepare a promotional data sheet for a business with which you are familiar. Give special attention to layout. Write a memorandum on the situation in which the sheet would be used. Give all data necessary to make clear the correlation between the situation and the use of the sheet.

3. Prepare an inspirational bulletin. Write an explanatory memorandum on the situation in which the bulletin would be used. Include the following data: (1) name and kind of company, (2) organization of department or group for which the bulletin is written, (3) geographic distribution of reading group, (4) frequency of group meetings, (5) age, personality, and methods of the group manager, (6) number of readers, their ages, education, personalities, relations with the manager, (7) a definition and description of the "composite mind and personality" of the reading group.

4. Prepare an information report on an employees' magazine. Assume that the report is to be part of a general factual survey of employees' magazines used by local companies, and that the report is to be addressed to a superior. Organize your report around the following points: (1) identity of magazine, and of issue being reported on, (2) apparent function and position of magazine in the company, (3) kinds of material used, (4) purpose of each kind of material, (5) criticism of material, from the point of view of an employee in the company, (6) general criticism of the magazine, from the point of view of (a) the company administration, (b) an employee in the company, (c) an interested outsider.

5. Assume that you have been assigned by an officer in a company which you know, to draw up plans for a company magazine. Prepare a report giving data and specifications on the kind of employees' magazine which you think the company could appropriately issue. Include in logical order: purposes to be accomplished by issuing the magazine, group or groups of employees among whom it would circulate, probable cost, editorial work and control of magazine, editorial policies, kinds of material to be used, form and appearance of magazine, method of distribution, frequency of issue.

6. Supplementing Problem 5, write (1) news items by a department reporter, (2) a president's letter for the first issue, (3) a feature article of company interest, (4) a feature column of general professional interest, (5) a joke column, (6) an attitude-building editorial, (7) a health campaign article.

CHAPTER 9

The Telegram

As the complexity and tempo of business have increased, the telegram has become more important and useful as a form of communication. In 1844 the first message was successfully transmitted between the cities of Washington and Baltimore; in 1861 the first transcontinental telegraph line was completed and used; in 1866 the first permanent Atlantic cable was laid. Now, approximately two hundred million telegrams and cablegrams are sent annually by business companies. This rapid increase in the use of telegraphy is accounted for by constantly improved services and facilities, and by the qualities and advantages of the telegram as a method of business communication.

A telegram is imperative and dramatic. Its very appearance suggests an important message; furthermore, we all are curious and somewhat elated when we receive a telegram. Certainly if a business man's secretary brings to him fifteen letters and three telegrams, she is likely to place the telegrams on the top of the pile, and he is sure to read them before he reads his letters. This quality of urgency should not be misused, however. If the business man opens a telegram to find that its content is trivial, and that the telegraphic form was used only to trick him into forced attention, he may feel annoyed and imposed upon. Telegrams should be reserved for legitimate effects, as well as for legitimate uses.

Another advantage of the telegram is that it is short and easy to understand. If it has been carefully prepared, the message is brief, clear, and direct. Consequently, the receiver understands the communication with a minimum of time spent in reading and interpreting it.

The speed with which telegrams are transmitted and delivered makes them very useful in business transactions in which time is important and valuable. For example, the telegram can make the most of those situations in which business should be completed before the end of the day. By telegraphy the business office in New York which closes at five o'clock can send a five o'clock message to a Chicago company.

which also closes at five o'clock but an hour later than Eastern Time; similarly, there are two hours in which to do business with Denver, and three hours for Los Angeles. This time difference is highly important for business announcements, decisions, and instructions which would be handicapped if held over until the next morning.

Like other forms of written communication, the telegram is a permanent record. It can be read and considered, and it can be filed for later reference and consultation.

BUSINESS USES OF THE TELEGRAM

Because of the special advantages of the telegram as a means of business communication, it is adapted to many special business uses. Usually the same general results can be accomplished by mail, but the telegram makes use of the advantages of speed and emphasis.

When prices are changing rapidly or when a company wants to secure competitive prices quickly, the telegram is the most efficient means of communication.

Announcing offers and price changes by telegram is the most direct way of notifying customers. Furthermore, because the telegram receives prompt attention, it is likely to stimulate immediate reaction and response.

Quick acceptance of a price or quality offer by telegram, especially on a limited-quantity item, often is both desirable and necessary.

Telegraphic acknowledgment of an order not only confirms the order but suggests special service and consideration. This is particularly effective with new customers.

Establishment of credit relations can be speeded up considerably by use of telegrams, and speed may be very important if the buyer has placed an order at the same time he asked for credit.

Preparation for a salesman's call by a telegram from a home office or sales manager frequently can facilitate a salesman's work and build up advance interest in his visits.

A telegraphic order or a telegram following a letter order emphasizes its importance.

A telegram acknowledging a complaint offsets the customer's annoyance and impatience, and shows him that his complaint is receiving prompt, individual attention.

Supplementing advertisements by sending telegrams to a list of specially selected customers and potential customers reinforces and enhances price and time offers which have been advertised locally.

Answering inquiries by telegram reflects personal, efficient service, and may be valuable in a competitive situation.

Announcing shipping dates by telegram gives the buyer useful information, and makes him feel that he has received special attention.

For placing frequent small orders, a telegram is useful to a buyer in his effort to keep down his inventory and to take advantage of special prices and seasonal or style changes.

Much successful collection work is done telegraphically, because a well-stated telegram is imperative and at the same time courteous. Using the principle that a slow payer may be surprised into action, the telegram has proved its value in all kinds and sizes of business. A variety of tested, successful messages can be provided by any telegraph office.

In locating missing shipments and in keeping the customer informed of the development of the investigation, the telegram is quick, and it reaches the right person immediately.

In requesting replies to unanswered letters, a telegram is a more effective communication than a letter because it is short and emphatic.

For informing, instructing, and encouraging salesmen when distance or time makes mail service inefficient, the telegram can be used effectively to maintain constant communication between sales manager and salesmen, or between home office and branch office. It is particularly useful under unusual circumstances as a means of encouraging, thanking, or stimulating representatives of the company.

TYPES OF TELEGRAPH SERVICE

An understanding of the different services which are available is necessary for the efficient and economical use of telegrams in business. In each instance the writer should correlate the kind and length of the message, the time element, the effect to be created, and the cost involved.

Full-rate Telegram. Full-rate telegrams provide the fastest form of service. At any hour of day or night they are accepted for immediate transmission. They are charged for on the basis of a ten-word message, with additional charge for extra individual words.

Day Letter. This service is for messages which will accomplish their purpose if handled less rapidly than full-rate fast telegrams. The basic charge is one and one-half the ten-word telegram rate, for fifty words or fewer; an additional charge of one-fifth of the initial charge is made for the next ten words.

Serial Service. Serial service can be used for intermittent correspondence with one addressee during one day. It is the most economical service to use for sending a series of messages to the same person. The charge is based on a minimum of fifteen words per message and a minimum total of fifty words. Aggregate serial rates are twenty per cent higher than those for day letters of corresponding length, so any installment of more than fifty words should be sent as a day letter. Each installment in serial service must be marked "Ser."

Night Letter. A night letter is transmitted by overnight service. Since night letters are accepted up to two o'clock in the morning for morning delivery, they are particularly well adapted to reports, proposals, and instructions which must be stated in some detail, and communicated quickly at relatively low cost. The maximum charge for a twenty-five-word night letter, to be delivered anywhere in the United States, is ninety cents. The rates for additional words decrease progressively as the length of the message increases.

Telegraph Money Order. Money in any amount may be telegraphed quickly and safely from one point to another. The rates are the same as for a fifteen-word regular telegram, plus a money-order fee. Money may also be sent by night letter money order.

Telemeter Service. This special service provides direct telegraphic connection between main office and branches, or between companies and their customers, for the economical handling of a large volume of messages.

PREPARATION OF TELEGRAMS

In addition to a knowledge of the forms and services offered by telegraphic communication, the business man needs to know at least the general principles and rules governing the preparation of telegrams. The mere fact that a telegram is sent is not enough; if it is to take advantage of its possibilities, the telegram must be well written, and dispatched in the best possible form.

Mechanical Parts

Like the business letter, the business telegram consists of several mechanical parts.

The kind of service to be used in transmitting the message should be checked in the box in the upper left-hand corner of the telegraph blank.

The name of the receiver of the telegram should be written below the left-hand corner of the blank. The address should include all informa-

tion that will be helpful in locating the addressee quickly. For example, there is no extra charge for the address "George P. Oslin, care of John Magee Mfg. Co., 7 Meade Terrace, Glen Ridge, N. J." Even a telephone number, the business title of the addressee, or "Mr. and Mrs. Joe Roe and family," may be used without extra charge. Code addresses cannot be used in domestic telegrams.

If the telegram is a reply to a person whose street address is not known, write "An answer date" or "An answer" after the name of the addressee, and address the telegram to the city and telegraph office from which the original telegram came. The originating branch office is indicated by one or two letters which may appear immediately before the "place from" in the date line of the original telegram. An example is, "John Magee, An Answer Date MS, New York City."

The address should be specific. "John Magee, Empire State Building, New York" is not adequate. On the other hand, if the telegram is addressed to a well-known national or local person, or a nationally known business company, details of room number, building, and street address are a waste of time and effort. If a telegram is sent to a passenger on a train, airplane, or bus, full details should be given. For example: "John Magee, En Route Chicago, care of Conductor (or 'Lower 6, Car 92') N. Y. C. Train Three, due 10:35 P.M., Cleveland, Ohio."

Only one signature will be transmitted without charge, but titles, names of departments, and names of firms may be added to let the addressee know just who sent the telegram. The name of the city from which the telegram is sent should not be included as a part of the signature, since the place of origin of the message will appear in the date line of the delivered message.

The designation "Paid" or "Collect" should be written in the lower left-hand corner of the telegraph blank. If the telegram is to be charged to the account of the sender, the name of the account should be written in the space provided for that purpose.

If a report on delivery is desired, the words "Report Delivery" should be written conspicuously at the top of the blank. These words, which are charged for, are wired to the destination, and a report is wired back, collect, indicating to whom and when the telegram was delivered.

The Message

Since a really effective telegram is one which states its message briefly but with perfect clarity, the message statement should contain every word that is necessary to the meaning of the message, but it should not contain additional and unnecessary words. Conciseness should not be

DOMESTIC SERVICE
Check the class of service desired; otherwise this message will be sent as a full rate telegram

FULL RATE TELEGRAM		SERIAL	
DAY LETTER		NIGHT LETTER	

WESTERN UNION

1206

JOSEPH L. EGAN, PRESIDENT

INTERNATIONAL SERVICE
Check the class of service desired; otherwise this message will be sent at the full rate

FULL RATE		DEFERRED	
CODE		NIGHT LETTER	

NO. WDS.-CL. OF SVC.	PD. OR COLL.	CASH NO.	CHARGE TO THE ACCOUNT OF	TIME FILED

Send the following message, subject to the terms on back hereof, which are hereby agreed to

Boston, Mass. February 14, 1949.

John Brown & Co.,

792 Main Street, Springield, Ill.

Fifty five boxes shipped on eighth. Balance will follow tomorrow.

E. S. Morris & Co.

Figure 17. Example of Correctly Prepared Form
(Reproduced by Permission of Western Union Telegraph Company)

carried to such extremes that the sender wastes time in rewriting and condensing his message, or that the receiver wastes time in interpreting and editing fragmentary statements.

Nouns and verbs convey ideas and meanings more concisely than do other parts of speech because most communications are built around names of things and accompanying statements of actions and conditions. The typical telegram, therefore, consists of nouns and verbs and a very few qualifying words (adjectives and adverbs) and connectives (conjunctions and prepositions). The words *the*, *and*, *I*, *that*, and *a* almost always can be eliminated without impairing the clarity of the statement.

Consideration of the reader, in the form of keeping in mind the reader's information and probable reaction, is highly important in the writing of telegrams. The sender should avoid statements which are perfectly clear to him but which may be ambiguous to the receiver. For example, the message, "Arrive on 2:00 P.M. train. Please meet me." leaves the reader in doubt as to whether the train left its starting point at 2:00 P.M. or will arrive at its destination at that time. The statement "Arrive 2:00 P.M. Saturday. Please meet train." does not need to be interpreted or verified.

The following telegraph messages illustrate obscure statements which can be made better communication by the addition of a few words.

```
WANT FIGURE BUYING PRESS
IF WIDE ENOUGH FOR COATED
FABRICS
```

```
WANT TO FIGURE ON
BUYING PRESS. PLEASE
WIRE MAXIMUM WIDTH
NECESSARY FOR COATED
FABRICS
```

```
EXPECT WEDNESDAY.
MATERIALS WENT YESTERDAY
EXCEPT ITEMS 3 AND 11
```

```
EXPECT ARRIVE 10 AM
WEDNESDAY. MATERIAL
SHIPPED EXPRESS
YESTERDAY FOR ARRIVAL
WEDNESDAY EXCEPT ITEMS
3 AND 11 BEING SHIPPED
TOMORROW
```

The use of salutations and closing phrases like the *Dear Sir* and *Yours truly* of the business letter results in a hybrid form of communication. Such phrases are unnecessary and, if they are transmitted, the sender is charged for them.

Words in telegrams are counted on the basis of the way they are used in normal correspondence. Therefore, since coined or mutilated words like *allright*, *havyu*, *pleasend*, and *canu* are counted and charged as two words each, they should be written correctly in the original telegram.

Punctuation

Punctuation marks are sent free when they are used in the text of telegrams which go to points in the United States. No longer should "stop" be used as a period; "stop," "comma," and similar designations are charged for if they are written as words.

The comma, the period, the colon, the semicolon, the dash, the hyphen, quotation marks, parentheses, the question mark, and the apostrophe all are transmitted without charge. The writer therefore should punctuate his message carefully and completely. Accurate punctuation adds to the clarity of the message and frequently assists in reducing the statement to the fewest possible words.

The following telegram would be slow and difficult reading, even for the person who knows the terms used and the background of the message:

```
IF QUALITY GOOD WILL ADVANCE 35 CENTS BAG 5 CARS USONE
YELLOWS SHIPMENTS DATES MENTIONED WIRE AND TWO CARS
USONE JUMBO MARKET HERE TODAY YELLOWS 140 TO 150 JUMBO
125 TO 135 WOULD LIKE CAR GOOD USONE WHITES WOULD MAKE
MONEY GIVE YOUR STREET ADDRESS
```

Punctuated, the same message would be:

```
IF QUALITY GOOD, WILL ADVANCE 35 CENTS BAG 5 CARS USONE
YELLOWS, SHIPMENT DATES MENTIONED WIRE, AND TWO CARS
USONE JUMBO.  MARKET HERE TODAY: YELLOWS 140 TO 150,
JUMBO 125 TO 135.  WOULD LIKE CAR GOOD USONE WHITES,
WOULD MAKE MONEY.  GIVE YOUR STREET ADDRESS.
```

Paragraphs

Telegrams written in paragraphs will be transmitted in paragraphs, at no extra cost. If the message is long, it should be organized and paragraphed as if it were a letter or a memorandum in condensed form. Paragraphs can be used effectively for separating parts of the communication and for emphasizing important parts.

The best office practice is for the secretary to type the telegram as it should appear to the receiver: in capital letters and with paragraph indentations and punctuation indicated.

The following example shows a long message which benefits by being paragraphed.

```
CONTRACT 1234 OUR PRODUCT MADE BY HAND USING ALLOY STEEL
SQUARE DRILL.  HAVE 30000 PIECES FINISHED AND PACKED.
HAVE FOUR HIGH SPEED SQUARE DRILLS MADE AND ARE NOW FIN-
ISHING.

HAVE HAD PATTERNS AND CASTINGS MADE FOR FIXTURES FOR
SQUARE DRILLING IN PRODUCTION AND ARE NOW MACHINING
THEM.  PLAN TO BE IN PRODUCTION ON SQUARE DRILLS NEXT
WEEK.  WILL BE ABLE TO DELIVER APPROXIMATELY 500 PER
MONTH THEREAFTER.

WE SHOULD BE GLAD TO FURNISH IMMEDIATELY FORMED AND
MATCHED PIECES TO EXPEDITE YOUR PARTIAL DELIVERY OR
COULD DELIVER THREE DAYS EARLIER PIECES WITH SQUARE
HOLES WITHOUT OFFSET, WHICH WE ORDINARILY DO NOT USE
IN OUR PRODUCT, AND WHICH MERELY SERVE TO WEAKEN THE
PRODUCT.
```

Chargeable Words

The following practices, subject to minor changes from time to time, are observed in determining the number of chargeable words in domestic telegrams:

The address and one signature are sent without charge.

Dictionary words from the English, German, French, Italian, Dutch, Portuguese, Spanish, and Latin languages are counted as one word each, regardless of length. Any word or group of words not forming a dictionary word in any one of these eight languages is counted at the rate of one word for every five letters or fraction thereof.

Abbreviations of single words are counted as full words.

Common abbreviations like O.K., A.M., P.M., F.O.B., C.O.D., and S.S. are counted as one word each.

Proper names from any language are counted according to the number of words and initials they contain as they are normally written. For example, "Van Dorne" is counted as two words, while "DeWitt" or "O'Connor" is each counted as one word. "United States" is two words; "New York City" is three words.

Symbols such as $, &, %, ′(for feet), and ″ (for inches) are counted as one word each; if they are joined with other combinations of figures, however, the count will be one word for each five figures, "other characters," or letters.

Contractions such as "can't," "aren't," "isn't" are charged as single words, with the apostrophe transmitted as free punctuation. Therefore, contractions should be used wherever they would be used if the communication were a letter or a memorandum; that is, wherever two words, uncontracted, would seem stiff and overformal.

In messages to points in the United States and Mexico, figures and ordinal numbers are counted at the rate of one word for every five characters, or fraction of five characters. A decimal point, comma, colon, fraction bar, or dash in a group of figures is counted as a figure. In groups of letters and figures, each unbroken sequence of letters or figures (including decimal point, comma, fraction bar, or dash) is counted as one word. A whole number and a fraction form two groups. For example:

5 (one figure)—one word
36987 (5 figures)—one word
10,000 (5 figures)—one word (comma is not charged)
% (3 characters)—one word
12% (2 groups of fewer than 5 characters)—two words
$1.80 (dollar mark and group of 3 characters)—one word
AB123 (1 sequence of letters and 1 sequence of figures)—two words
18% (1 group of figures and % sign)—one word
and/or—three words

TELEPHONE CODE

Sometimes errors, some costly and some merely amusing, occur in handling telegraph messages by telephone. Uncommon words, similar words and sounds, unusual names, code words, foreign words, and initials are likely to be misunderstood when they are heard, and to go through to the receiver in garbled form.

The similarity in sound of some letters (such as *B*, *D*, and *V*; *P* and

T; F and *S; M* and *N*) causes confusion and results in the misunderstanding of words with similar sounds, like *five* and *nine, arrived* and *died, ship* and *shipped, if* and *is, send* and *sent, sent* and *meant.*

To prevent possible confusion the sender should pronounce each letter, followed by an identifying word. The following telephone code is designed for this purpose:

A as in Adam	N as in New York
B as in Boston	O as in Ocean
C as in Chicago	P as in Peter
D as in Denver	Q as in Queen
E as in Edward	R as in Robert
F as in Frank	S as in Sugar
G as in George	T as in Thomas
H as in Henry	U as in Union
I as in Ida	V as in Victory
J as in John	W as in William
K as in King	X as in X-ray
L as in Lincoln	Y as in Young
M as in Mary	Z as in Zero

PROBLEMS

1. List the business uses of the telegram. Describe business situations to which the different uses would apply advantageously. Write a telegram to fit each situation.
2. Name the six basic telegraph services. Describe business situations in which each service would be the most appropriate.
3. Write a telegram which could be misunderstood because of (a) poorly stated message, (b) inaccurate or incomplete punctuation.
4. Write a telegram in which paragraphing and punctuation add to the clarity of the message and to its value.
5. Write a telegram which gives prices and specifications on five items of merchandise. Determine the word count of the telegram.
6. Secure from the local telegraph office the telegraph messages prepared especially for business use and being currently used. Select three typical messages and describe business situations in which they could be used.

CHAPTER 10

Details for Reference

ADDRESSES AND SALUTATIONS FOR LETTERS TO OFFICIALS

When a business man writes a letter to an official of the government, the church, or the armed forces, the form of address, the salutation, and the closing phrase of his letter should be selected through a consideration of three factors: established usage; the desire and preference of the receiver of the letter, if his desire and preference are known or can be determined; and the relationship that exists between the writer and the receiver of the letter.

Some general procedures can be followed uniformly.

The *envelope address* and the *inside address* should be the same, except in instances in which elaborate mailing addresses can be simplified and shortened in the inside address.

The *salutation* used should reflect the degree of formality existing in the communication and in the relationship between the writer and the reader. In formal business letters to officials, titles should be used in complete form. A common exception, however, is the elimination of the first part of a two-part military or naval title. For example, if the name Rear Admiral Frank E. Dacey appears in the inside address, the salutation "Dear Admiral Dacey:" may be used; similarly, the name Lieutenant Colonel John S. Moody carries the salutation "Dear Colonel Moody:".

The *closing phrase* "Very truly yours," or one of the other "truly" phrases may be used in almost any letter. "Respectfully yours," is appropriate in all letters to officials and dignitaries. If the letter contains a suggestion, request, or petition, "Respectfully submitted," is appropriate. "Sincerely yours," and "Cordially yours," personalize the general atmosphere of the letter, and reflect a personal as well as an official relationship. Always the salutation and the closing phrase should

be consistent in degree of formality; the formal salutation "Sir:", for example, automatically calls for the closing phrase "Respectfully yours,".

The following list shows approved forms and accepted practice.

Ambassador

(ADDRESS)	(SALUTATION)
His Excellency The American Ambassador (or) The Honorable . . . . . . American Ambassador	Sir: (or) Your Excellence: (or) My dear Mr. Ambassador:

Army Officers

The salutations *Sir:*, *My dear Sir:*, and *Dear Captain . . . . . :* may be used. Abbreviated titles are permissible in both the addresses and the salutations, but a title written in full always is preferable. The titles listed here indicate abbreviations which are commonly used.

Sergeant . . . Sgt.
Cadet . . . . [Do not abbreviate.]
Second Lieutenant . . . 2d Lieut.
First Lieutenant . . . 1st Lieut.
Captain . . . Capt.
Major . . . Maj.
Lieutenant Colonel . . . Lt. Col.
Colonel . . . Col.
Brigadier General . . . Brig. Gen.
Major General . . . Maj. Gen.
Lieutenant General . . . Lt. Gen.
General . . [Do not abbreviate.]

Cabinet Member

(ADDRESS)	(SALUTATION)
The Secretary of the War Department Washington, D. C. (or) The Honorable . . . . . . Secretary of the War Department Washington, D. C.	Sir: (or) My dear Mr. Secretary:

Catholic Church Officials

(CARDINAL) His Eminence, Cardinal	Your Eminence:
(ARCHBISHOP) His Grace, the Archbishop of	Your Grace:

(or) The Most Reverend the Archbishop of ..... (or) The Most Reverend Archbishop of	(or) Most Reverend Archbishop:
(BISHOP) Bishop of ..... (or) The Most Reverend Bishop ..... (or) The Right Reverend	Your Excellency: (or) Right Reverend and Dear Bishop: (or) My dear Bishop ..... :
(PRIEST) The Reverend Father ..... (or) Reverend	Reverend Dear Father: (or) Dear Father ..... : (or) Dear Father:
(MOTHER SUPERIOR) Reverend Mother Superior (or) Reverend Mother ..... (with initials of order)	Reverend Mother: (or) Reverend Mother ..... : (or) My dear Reverend Mother:
(BROTHER) Brother	Dear Brother: (or) Dear Brother ..... :

Clergyman (Protestant)

The Reverend ..... (or) The Reverend ....., D.D. (if applicable)	Dear Sir: (or) My dear Sir: (or) Dear Mr. ..... :

(If only the last name is used in reference to a clergyman, the designation "The Reverend Mr. Hill" is better than "The Reverend Hill".)

Episcopal Church Officials

(PRESIDING BISHOP) The Most Reverend	Most Reverend and Dear Sir: (or) Dear Bishop ..... :
(OTHER BISHOPS) The Right Reverend the Bishop of ..... (or) The Right Reverend	Right Reverend and Dear Sir: (or) Dear Bishop ..... :

(ARCHDEACON) The Venerable the Archdeacon of ..... (or) The Venerable	Dear Sir: (or) Dear Archdeacon ..... :
(DEAN) Dean	Dear Sir: (or) Dear Mr. ..... : (or) Dear Dr. ..... : (if applicable)
(CANON) Canon	Dear Sir: (or) Dear Mr. ..... : (or) Dear Dr. ..... : (if applicable)
(PRIEST) The Reverend	Dear Mr. ..... : (or) Dear Father ..... :
Governor of a State The Honorable The Governor of ..... (or) The Honorable ..... Governor of	Sir: (or) My dear Sir: (or) Dear Governor ..... :
House of Representatives, member The Honorable	Sir: (or) My dear Sir: (or) My dear Congressman: (for national Congress) (or) My dear Mr. ..... :
Jewish Rabbi Rabbi ..... (or) The Reverend	Dear Sir: (or) My dear Mr. ..... :

Judges (Federal, State, and Municipal)

The Honorable	Sir: (or) My dear Sir: My dear Judge . . . . . :

Mayor of a City

The Mayor of	Sir: (or)
(or)	
The Honorable	Dear Sir:
Mayor of	(or) My dear Sir: (or) My dear Mayor . . . . . : (or) My dear Mr. . . . . :

Methodist Bishop

The Reverend Bishop	Dear Sir: (or) My dear Bishop . . . . . :

Navy Officers

The same custom and procedure are used with both Navy and Army titles and addresses. The following list shows acceptable (though undesirable) abbreviations.

Midshipman . . . Midn.
Ensign . . . Ens.
Lieutenant (junior grade) . . . Lieut. (j.g.)
Lieutenant . . . Lieut.
Lieutenant Commander . . . Lt. Comdr.
Commander . . . Comdr.
Captain . . . Capt.
Rear Admiral . . . Rear Adm.
Vice Admiral . . . Vice Adm.
Admiral

President of the United States

The President, The White House	To the President:
(or)	(or)
The President of the United States	Sir:
(or)	(or)
The Honorable	My dear Mr. President:
President of the United States	(or) Dear Mr. President:

Senate, member

The Honorable . . . . . Sir:
(or)
My dear Senator:
(or)
My dear Senator . . . . . :

Supreme Court Justice

The Honorable . . . . . Sir:
Chief (or Associate) Justice of the Supreme Court (or)
Mr. Justice . . . . . My dear Sir:
(or)
My dear Mr. Chief Justice:
(My dear Mr. Justice:)
(or)
My dear Justice . . . . . :

Vice President of the United States

The Vice President Sir:
The United States Senate (or)
(or) My dear Mr. Vice President:
The Honorable . . . . . (or)
Vice President of the United States My dear Mr. . . . . :

ABBREVIATIONS OF BUSINESS TERMS AND REFERENCES

A.A.A.—Agricultural Adjustment Act
A.A.A.A.—American Association of Advertising Agencies
A1—first grade or quality
A.B.—Bachelor of Arts (less common than B.A.)
abbr.—abbreviation
A.B.C.—Audit Bureau of Circulations
A.B.P.—Associated Business Papers
Acc. Pay.—accounts payable
Acc. Rec.—accounts receivable
acct. or a/c—account
Adm.—administration, or administrative
ad val. or a/v—according to value (*ad valorem*)
A.F.A.—Advertising Federation of America
admr.—administrator
advt.—advertisement
agt.—agent
A.M.—Master of Arts (less common than M.A.)
amt.—amount
A.N.A.—Association of National Advertisers
A.N.P.A.—American Newspaper Publishers' Association
App.—appendix
approx.—approximately
ar. or arr.—arrive
A.S.C.A.P. (ASCAP)—American Society of Composers, Authors, and Publishers
assn. or assoc.—association
asst.—assistant
atty.—attorney
av.—average
avoir. or avdp.—avoirdupois

bal.—balance
B.B.B.—Better Business Bureau
bbl. or brl.—barrel
B.D.—bad debts
B/E—bill of exchange

B/F or Brt. Fwd.–brought forward
Bk.–book
B/L or B.L.–bill of lading
B/P or B.Pay.–bills payable
B.R.–base rate
B/R or B.Rec.–bills receivable
B/S–bill of sale
Bus. Mgr.–business manager

C.–centigrade, or hundred
C.A.B. rating–Co-operative Analysis of Broadcasting rating
cap.–capital
Cash.–cashier
Cat.–catalog
C.B.T.–Chicago Board of Trade
C/D or C.D.–certificate of deposit, or carried down
cert. or certif.–certificate
cf.–compare
C/F–carried forward
chgs.–charges
C.L.–car lots
cml.–commercial
c/o–in care of
C.O.D.–collect on delivery
col.–column
coll.–collection, or collector
Com.–commission, or committee
cont.–continued
Cor. Sec.–corresponding secretary
Corp.–corporation
C.P.A.–certified public accountant
Cr.–credit, or creditor
cwt.–hundred weight

deg. or °–degree
dep.–deposit
Dep'n.–depreciation
Dept.–department
disc.–discount
Dr.–debtor, or doctor

ea.–each
E. & O.E.–errors and omissions excepted
Ed.–editor
ed. or edit.–edition
e.g.–for example (*exempli gratia*)
eng.–engineer, or engineering
et al.–and others (*et alii*)
etc.–and so forth (et cetera)
ex.–example
Exch.–exchange
ex div.–without dividend
Exec.–executor
exp.–express, or expense

F.–Fahrenheit
f. or fol.–folio
F.C.C.–Federal Communications Commission
ff.–following (plural)
F.F.B.–Federal Farm Board
fig.–figure
f.o.b.–free on board
f.o.f.–free on field
F.R.B.–Federal Reserve Bank
frt.–freight
ft.–foot
F.T.C.–Federal Trade Commission
Fwd.–forward

G.I.P.–goods in process
G.O.–general order
G.P.O.–general post office
gro.–gross

hab. corp.–habeas corpus
H.O.R.–hourly overhead rate
H.P. or h.p.–horse power
hr., hrs.–hour, hours

I.G.A.–Independent Grocers Alliance
i.e.–that is (*id est*)
Inc.–inclosure, or incorporated
Ins.–insurance
int.–interest
in trans.–in transit (on the way)
inv.–invoice
invt.–inventory

Jour.–journal
junc.–junction

lat.–latitude
L/C–letter of credit
l.c.–lower case
L.C.L.–less than car lots
ledg.–ledger

long.—longitude
L.S.—place of the seal (*locus sigilli*)
L., s., d.—pounds, shillings, pence
Ltd.—limited

M—thousand
mdse.—merchandise
memo.—memorandum
mfg.—manufacturing
mfr.—manufacturer
Mgr.—manager
misc.—miscellaneous
M.O.—money order
mo.—month
M.H.R.—man hour rate
MS, MSS—manuscript, manuscripts
M.U.—mark up

N.A.C.A.—National Association of Cost Accountants
N.A.M.—National Association of Manufacturers
N.A.R.G.—National Association of Retail Grocers
N.B. or n.b.—note well (*nota bene*)
N.G.—no good
N.L.R.B.—National Labor Relations Board
No., Nos.—number, numbers
N.P.—notary public
N.R.—next to reading matter
N/S or NSF—not sufficient funds

O.K.—correct
O.O.S.—out of stock

p., pp.—page, pages
pc., pcs.—piece, pieces
pd.—paid
pfd.—preferred
pkg.—package
p.&l.—profit and loss
pmt.—payment
p.p.—parcel post
P.P.A.—Periodical Publisher's Association
P.Q.—production quota
pr.—pair
P.R.—piece rate
pref.—preferred
pro tem.—for the time being (*pro tempore*)
P.S.—postscript

R. or R.F.D.—route, or rural free delivery
recd.—received
Rec. Sec.—recording secretary
ref.—reference, or referee
Req.—requisition
retd.—returned
ROP—run-of-paper position
R.P.M. or r.p.m.—revolutions per minute
R.R.—railroad
Ry.—railway

s.c.—small capital, or single column
Sec.—secretary
sect.—section
shipt.—shipment
S.O.—seller's option
sp. gr.—specific gravity
S.Q.—sales quota
Sr.—senior
ss.—namely (*scilicet*)
SS—steamship
S.T.—stock turnover, or Standard Time
Supt.—superintendent

T.A.B.—Traffic Audit Bureau
tel.—telephone, or telegraph
temp.—temperature
Treas.—treasurer
T.M.—trade mark
T.N.—trade name
Twp.—township

v. or vol.—volume
v. or vs.—against (versus)
viz.—namely (*videlicet*)

W/B or WB or W.B.—waybill
W.C.I.—Workmen's Compensation Insurance
wk.—week
wt.—weight

X—express
XX—good quality or grade
XXX—high grade
XXXX—finest quality

PART TWO

GRAPHIC COMMUNICATION

BORROWER'S NO.	ISSUE DATE	BORROWER'S NO.	ISSUE DATE

CHAPTER 11

Introduction to Graphic Communication

According to the old proverb, "A picture is worth a thousand words." Pictures are a universal language. They are understood by all peoples —a knowledge of signs and symbols is not necessary. Even when more complicated languages are available, pictures retain their popularity.

Today graphic communication includes not only pictures and photographs, but also charts and diagrams. Although many diagrams are not a wholly universal language, they retain a greater element of it than do the sentences of ordinary speaking and writing. The universal languages are, by their very nature, best adapted to describe appearances and distances. Charts and diagrams, like modernistic art, do not present exact visual images of their models, yet they convey impressions more directly and vividly than can be done with many words and paragraphs. When the shape of a house is described in words, both the speaker and listener must go through an inaccurate translation process that is avoided if the house may actually be seen or a picture of it be shown. Words may be adequate if the house is similar to one with which both speaker and listener are familiar, for a comparison may be made with the known house and minor differences described. But if the house is an entirely new design it becomes almost impossible to create a word description that enables the listener to visualize the house as it actually appears.

The reader of a story will visualize its characters in terms of current styles, cosmetics, haircuts, unless illustrations show them otherwise. When you have read a novel which you later see in a movie, you may be disappointed that the characters have not the appearance which you think the author intended. Your interpretation of the characters appears to be quite different from that of the movie director. This inconsistency occurs because the writer did not use the graphic method of communication along with his words, so part of his idea is easily lost or given various interpretations.

From the historical standpoint, written communication has the ad-

vantage of a big head start. With the invention of printing in the fifteenth century and its increasing efficiency up to the present time, it has been relatively easy and inexpensive to duplicate great quantities of written material. Drawings and photographs, on the other hand, have entailed greater labor and expense. This situation has been changing remarkably in recent years. Techniques are now being developed which greatly reduce the expense of reproducing photographs, drawings, charts, and diagrams. In financial and business literature, both for internal and for public use, and in professional advertising, the use of graphic illustration is becoming increasingly widespread.

Graphic language is now an important part of the vocabulary of business. It is used not only for numerical and statistical charts, but also for the discussion of organization structures, manufacturing processes, financial transactions, etc. This is because the concepts involved lend themselves more readily to a combination of graphic and verbal expression than to a purely verbal discussion. For effective consideration of important business ideas, graphic language becomes a part of the terminology needed for reasoning, which is of equal importance with a thorough understanding of verbal business terminology. Familiarity with graphic language is comparable to familiarity with the verbal terminology for accounting, banking, production, and sales. Both are necessary for business communication and thinking. They supplement each other and form an integral part of the means of business reasoning and discussion.

CHAPTER 12

Simplified Drawing Instructions

Contrary to common opinion, it is not necessary to become a skilled draftsman in order to use graphic communication effectively. With a little practice the average business student can learn to draw charts which are entirely satisfactory for use in most business conversations and correspondence. Of course, the services of a skilled draftsman should be obtained for preparation of charts which are to appear in books and magazines.

The greatest value that comes from the study of business charts is that the student learns something about a new language which has certain distinct advantages over other languages. This language is not reserved for the qualified professional, any more than the game of tennis is reserved for the top ranking players. With the small amount of practice required for solving the problems in this book, the student will develop the ability to sketch charts, using the same materials that he uses for ordinary writing. Many times sketches will be sufficient, and will communicate business ideas just as effectively as professional drawings which incorporate all the refinements of neatness and technical correctness. Furthermore, sketches may be given to a professional draftsman for working up.

The author is not in agreement with standards of artistic and technical perfection which are so high that they discourage the use of reasonably well-executed illustrations for typewritten reports. It is better to use a valuable chart which is neatly sketched in pencil than to omit it merely because it will not have a professional appearance when completed.

With a little practice the typewriter may be used effectively in the preparation of tables and charts. Although the finished product may not be on a par with printed illustrations or professional draftsmanship, it is far more effective than unillustrated paragraphs. Many tables and charts can be prepared entirely on the typewriter, and others may be constructed with drawing equipment as a supplement. See Illustration 50, page 319, and Figure 43, page 345.

USE OF CROSS-SECTION PAPER

When the accuracy and neatness required are greater than the average person can achieve by sketching, simple mechanical aids may be used. Lined composition paper is used to obtain greater neatness in compositions which are to be written longhand. Similarly, cross-section paper, which has both horizontal and vertical lines, may be used to achieve greater neatness in drawing charts. The horizontal lines on the

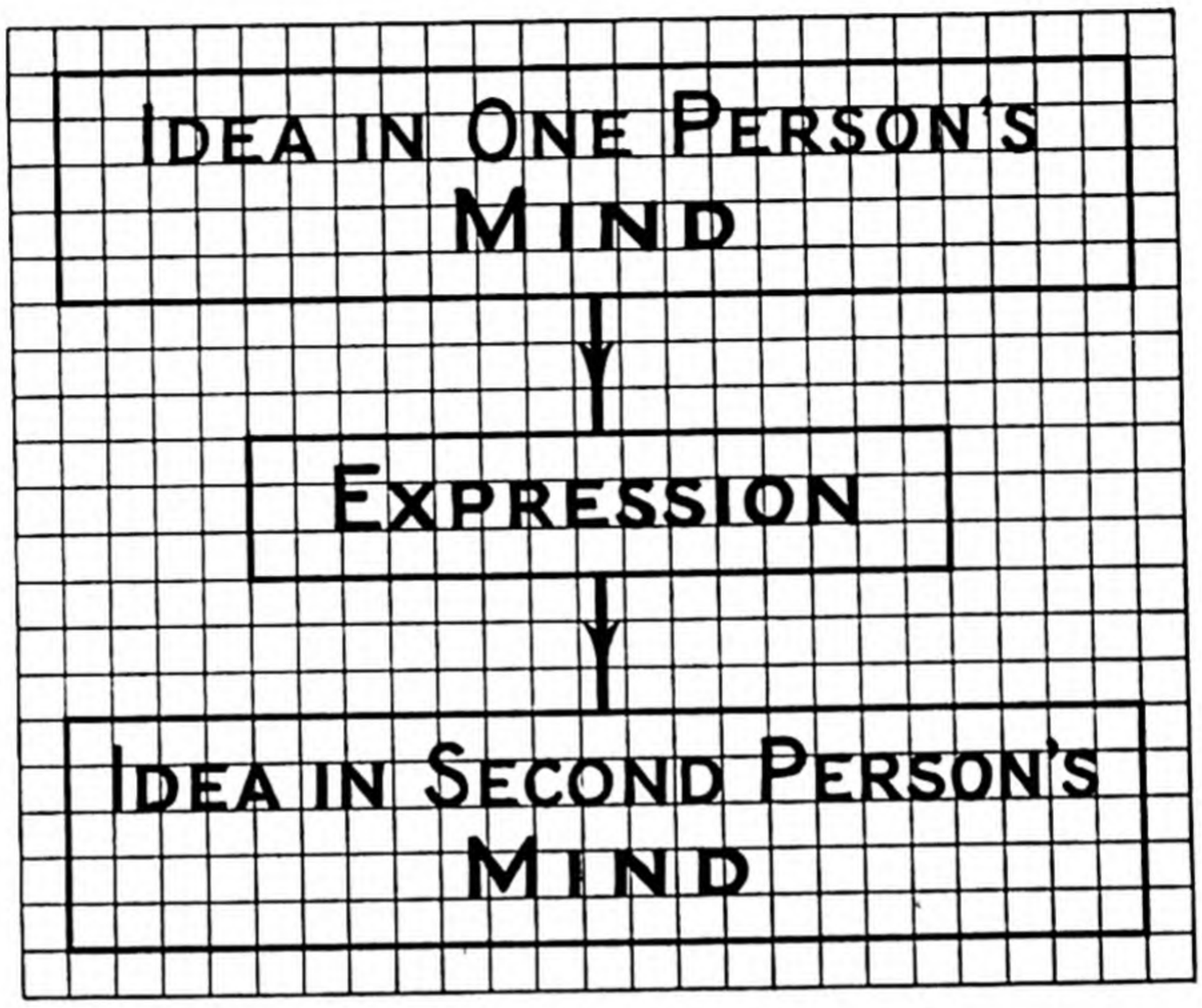


Figure 18. Chart on Cross Section Paper

composition paper enable the person to keep his writing horizontal and evenly spaced; the horizontal and vertical lines on the cross-section paper enable the chart-maker to draw lines that are straight, and spaced as desired. Charts may be drawn on the cross-section paper itself, or the cross-section paper may be placed beneath a sheet of thin plain paper so that the lines show through for use as guides. Cross-section paper may also be used to advantage when planning the spacing of the chart. Pen points of various widths and adjustable drafting pens are helpful in drawing, but useful charts may be drawn with an ordinary pencil.

DRAFTING EQUIPMENT

It is not necessary for the student of business charts to possess the expensive equipment which is required for technical drafting. Charts which are satisfactory for many purposes may be drawn with only writing equipment and possibly cross-section paper. If many charts are

to be drawn, however, it will be worth while to obtain inexpensive mechanical drawing equipment and become proficient in its use. The reason is not so much that the finished charts will look better, as that they can be made more quickly and easily.

This textbook does not give an exhaustive treatment of either drawing procedures or graphic principles, but presents only fundamentals which may be put in daily practical use by the business student. This discussion of drafting equipment and procedures is to enable the student to use graphic communication to better advantage.

The following list of articles will be found particularly useful in making charts. If complete sets of equipment are available they may be used, of course, but these are sufficient for general nonprofessional use:

Drawing Board. Drawing boards are made of soft wood so that the paper may be attached with thumbtacks. The working edge of the drawing board should be perfectly straight so that parallel lines may be drawn with the T-square.

T-Square. A general purpose T-square should have a fixed head and a perfectly straight edge on the blade. Celluloid edges are advantageous but not necessary.

Triangles. Both a 30–60 and a 45-degree triangle are standard equipment. However, either one of these alone will be sufficient for drawing ordinary business charts.

Thumbtacks. Thumbtacks should be of the flat head variety. Some draftsmen prefer Scotch tape rather than thumbtacks.

Pencils. The ordinary soft pencil becomes dull very quickly, and the drawing takes on a smudgy appearance as it is worked over. The pencil sold in drug stores and stationery stores as #3 Hard is much more satisfactory, or a 2H or 4H drawing pencil may be used.

Eraser. A good quality eraser is necessary to avoid smudging the drawing.

Instruments. Dividers are very useful in laying out a drawing. They are essentially a compass with two points rather than a point and a pencil. An ordinary pencil compass is sometimes used as a substitute if the work does not require a great degree of accuracy.

Standard drawing instruments include a ruling pen. The distance between the nibs may be controlled so that lines of varying widths may be drawn, and the pen is filled by inserting a quill between the nibs, not by dipping the pen in the ink.

For many purposes an ordinary fountain pen will be satisfactory if it is used with a metal-edged ruler, otherwise the ink will flow onto the ruler and then blot the drawing.

DRAFTING PROCEDURE

The two upper corners of the paper are attached to the drawing board with thumbtacks or Scotch tape. Thumbtacks should be pressed

in so that the rims bear on the paper. This prevents the paper from being torn away and allows the instruments to be moved freely over the entire surface of the board.

The T-square is used to draw horizontal, parallel lines. The head of the T-square is held against the left-hand edge of the drawing board,

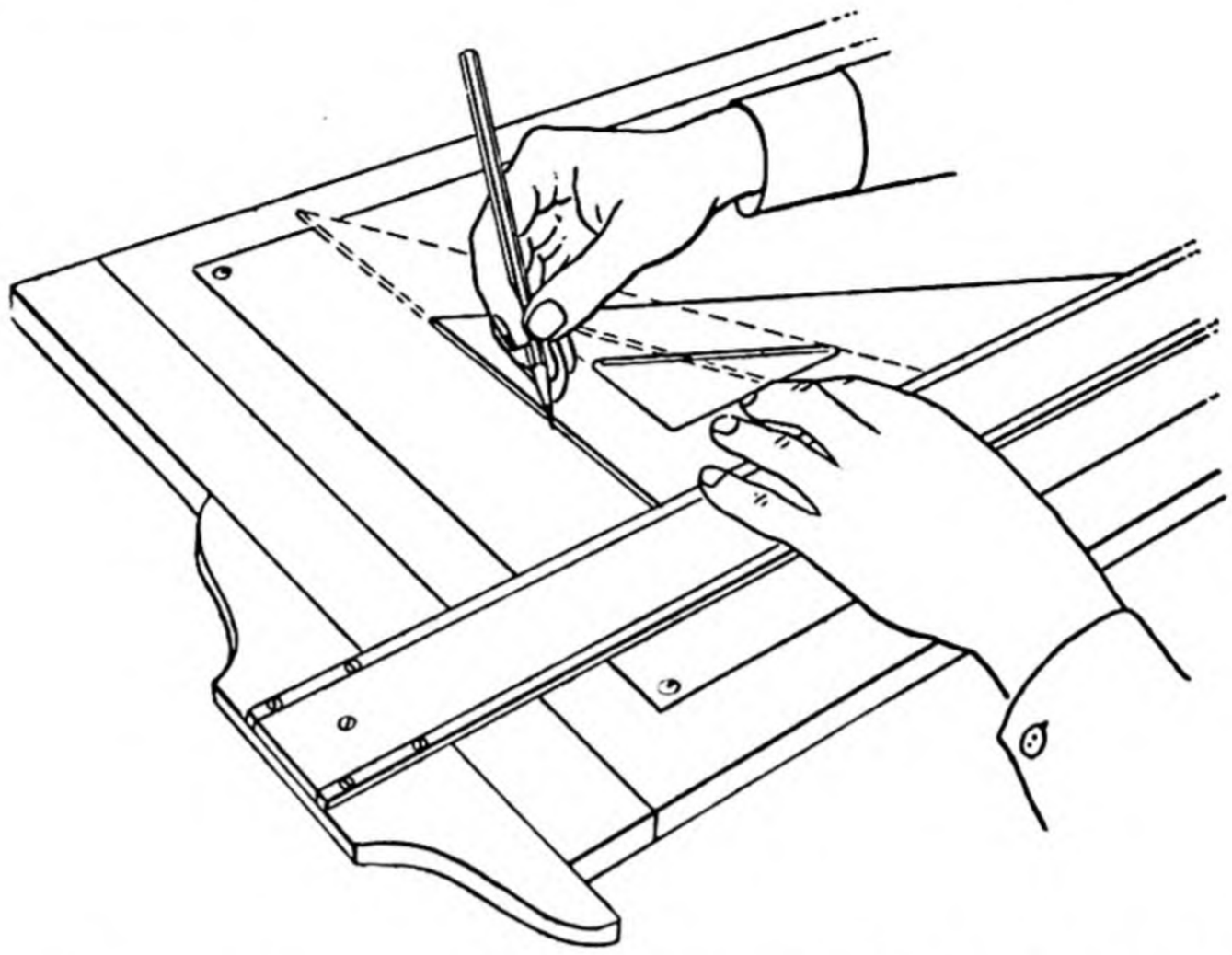
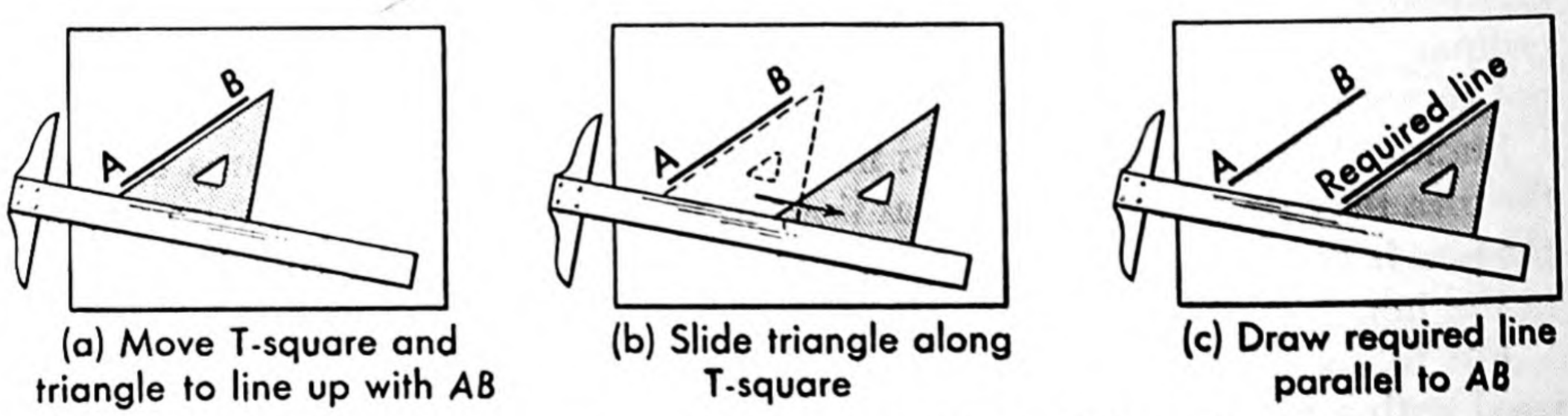


Figure 19. Position of T-square and triangle for drawing Vertical Lines. (Based on Giesecke, Mitchell, and Spencer: *Technical Drawing*, Macmillan, 1940)

and lines are drawn from left to right using the upper edge of the T-square as a guide. Long lines are drawn with full arm movements until they are almost finished, then completed with a finger movement.

Triangles are used in connection with the T-square to draw non-horizontal, parallel lines. The left hand holds the triangle against the T-square and at the same time pulls the T-square firmly against the



(a) Move T-square and triangle to line up with *AB*

(b) Slide triangle along T-square

(c) Draw required line parallel to *AB*

Figure 20. Use of T-square and Triangle to Draw Oblique Parallel lines

left edge of the drawing board. The triangle is placed at the right of the vertical line to be drawn, so that the pencil is guided by the upper edge of the triangle. Of course, when the vertical line is on the extreme right-hand side of the board, the triangle must be turned around.

Occasionally it is necessary to draw oblique, parallel lines, i.e., lines which cannot be drawn from ordinary positions of the triangle and T-square. The following procedure should be used: Draw one line at the desired angle. Place one edge of a triangle against this line, and place the T-square so that its blade is against another edge of the triangle and one corner of the head is in contact with an edge of the drawing board. Hold the T-square in this position and slide the triangle along the edge of the T-square.

Dividers are used to make accurate divisions and multiplications of distances. Because they are employed so frequently, the student should

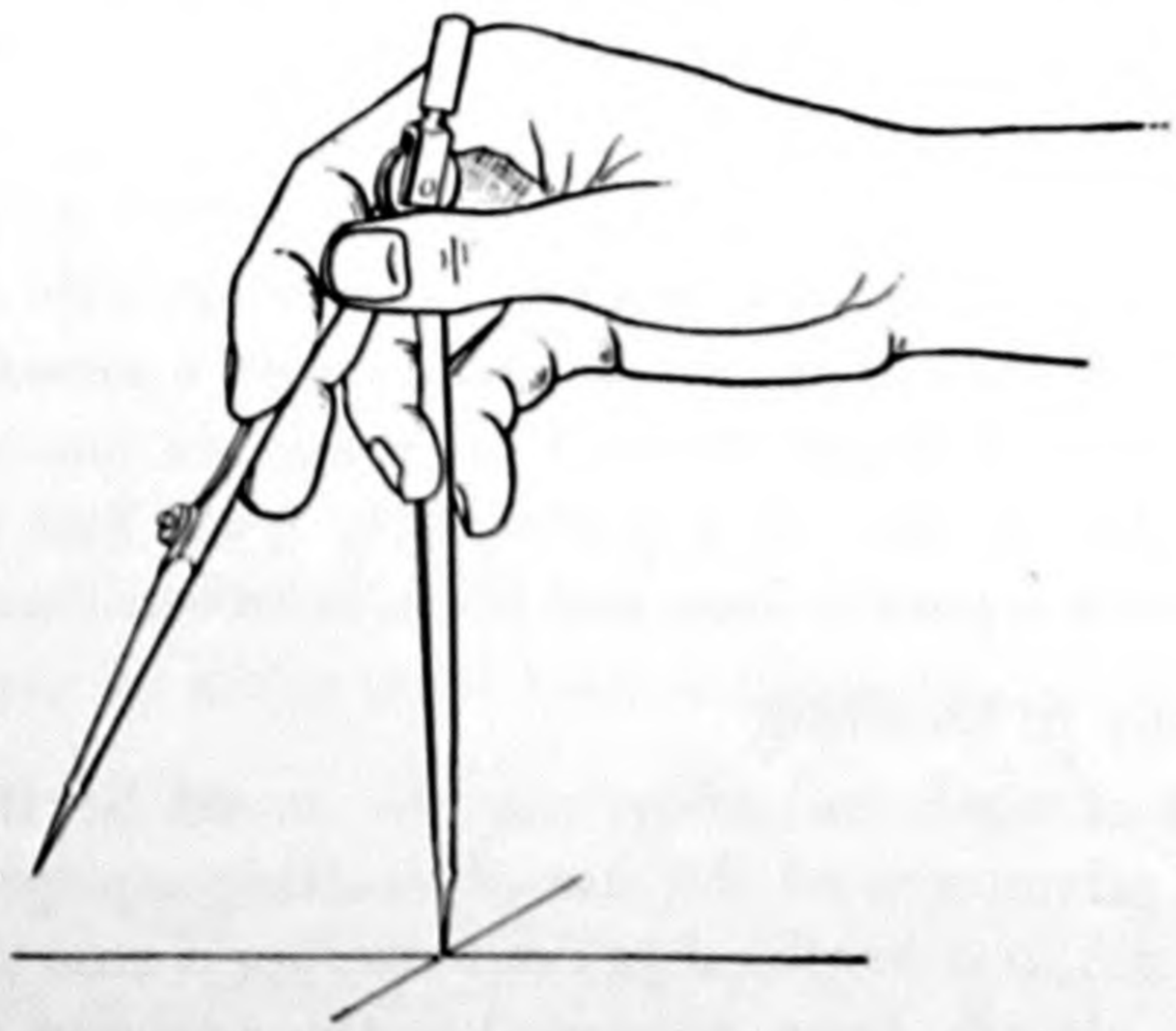


Figure 21. Operation of Dividers Using Only One Hand

learn to operate them with one hand. One leg of the dividers is held by the first and second fingers, the other by the thumb and third finger, and the head of the dividers rests against the upper part of the first finger. They are set by movements of the first two fingers. Using the dividers in this way, it is possible to divide a line into any number of equal parts by trial and error. Once a correct setting has been obtained, it may be multiplied by making tiny prick marks on the paper as the dividers are swung from position to position.

Line Work

The weight and character of line are important factors in the appearance of a finished drawing. All lines should be drawn with a sharp pencil, and made with one continuous stroke from start to finish as described under the instructions for using the T-square. Lines drawn in this way give the drawing a crisp appearance which cannot be obtained with a dull pencil and sketchy strokes.

The pencil lines used in making business charts may be divided into three somewhat overlapping classifications as follows:

1. *Guide lines.* The purpose of guide lines is to assist in making the remainder of the drawing; they are not intended to be parts of the finished drawing. For this reason, guide lines are drawn with a hard pencil and with very little pressure. They need only be dark enough to be seen while the drawing is being completed. Since they are very light lines, it is *not* necessary to erase them when the chart is finished.

2. *Ordinary lines.* The ordinary line work on a drawing is made by applying a normal amount of pressure to the pencil as it crosses the paper. Variations in the weight of line are obtained by using several pencils with different leads rather than trying to vary the pressure of the stroke used to make the lines. Care should always be taken not to apply so much pressure that the pencil cuts a groove in the paper.

3. *Heavy lines.* When it is desired to have one line stand out more than the others, it should be made with a softer pencil, possibly one with a blunt point. A single heavy line, made on one stroke, is to be preferred to a double line. If a particularly wide line is desired, it is better to draw two separate lines and fill in between them.

Motion Economy in Drafting

A great deal of time and effort may be saved by the chart-maker who takes full advantage of the use of drafting equipment to reduce the number of motions involved in constructing a chart. Some of these short cuts have already been discussed in the previous section. Others are considered below.

Use of Guide Lines in Constructing a Chart

When the exact location and extremities of an ordinary line are known, the final line should be drawn the first time, so that no redrawing will be necessary. However, the location and extremities of many lines are dependent in turn upon other lines, and sometimes no one line can be conveniently drawn in its final position and length the first time. Hence, the first few lines are drawn as guide lines of indefinite length; then other lines may be drawn in their final weight, located in accordance with the positions of the guide lines; and finally the required portions of the guide lines are drawn in their final weight.

To illustrate, assume the problem of drawing an eight-inch by five-inch rectangle in the center of a sheet of paper. The following lines should be drawn in the order indicated:

1. Diagonal guide lines between each pair of opposite corners of the paper. As the purpose of these lines is to locate the center of the paper, they need not extend beyond the central area (see Figure 22).

2. At the intersection of the diagonal guide lines draw horizontal and vertical guide lines. These are construction lines only, needed to insure undeviating horizontal and vertical positions of the ruler when the dimensions are being marked on the paper. On the horizontal guide line, measure off

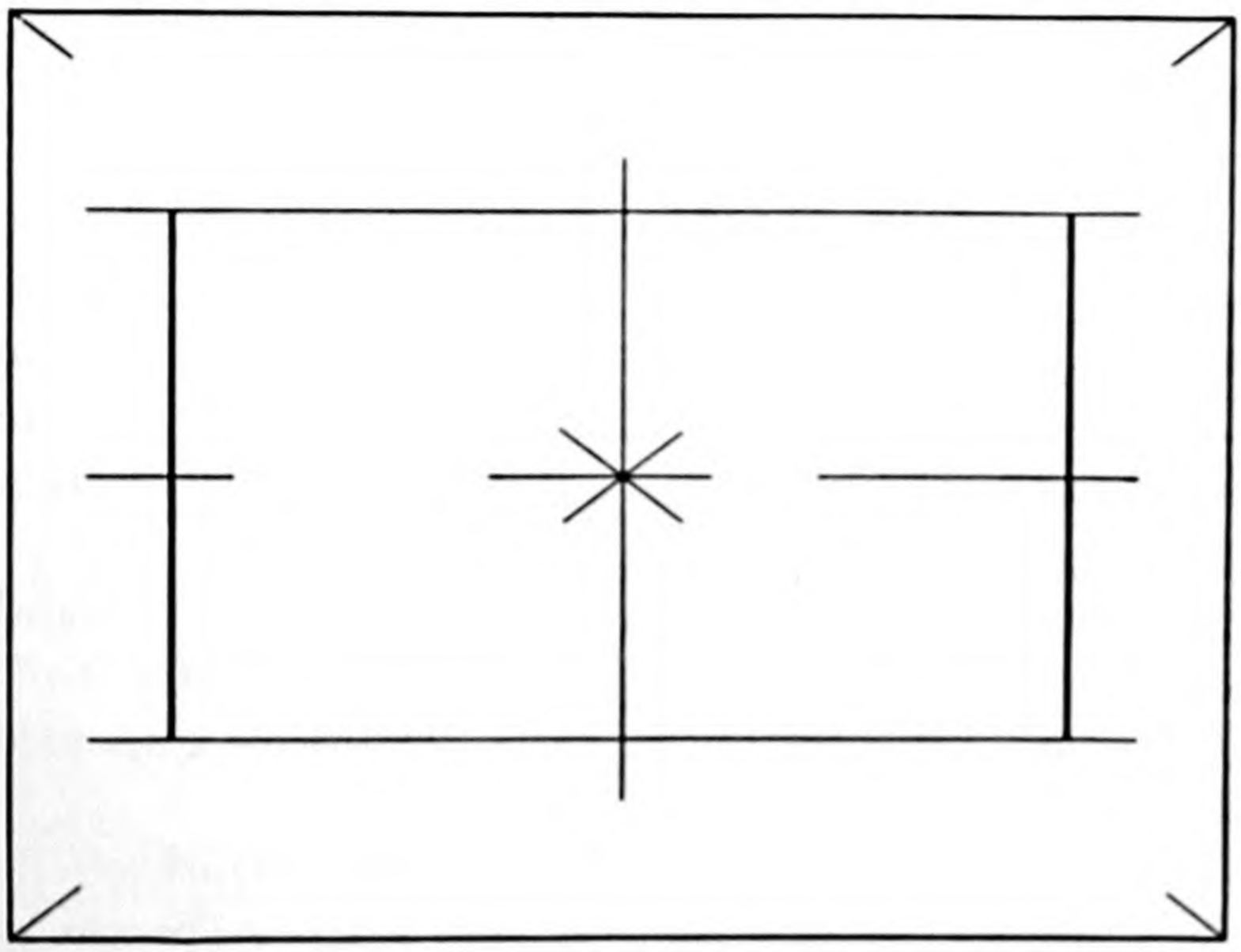


Figure 22. Use of Guide Lines in Constructing a Rectangle

four inches both sides of the center; on the vertical guide line, two and one-half inches.

3. Through each of the two points on the vertical guide lines, draw a horizontal guide line across the paper. Parts of these guide lines will later be made darker to form the top and bottom of the rectangle, but at present they must be drawn lightly because their extremities have not been determined.

4. Come back to the two points that were measured off on the first horizontal guide line running through the center of the paper. These points define the length of the rectangle, and through them two final-weight vertical lines are drawn and terminated at the top and bottom horizontal guide lines. These are the sides of the required rectangle, and they are drawn in final weight the first time because their location and extremities are known.

5. Go over the guide lines running between the extremities of the sides, making them full weight.

Note: The order in which the sides and top and bottom were drawn may be reversed. That is, the sides may be drawn first as guide lines, and the top and bottom lines drawn full weight the first time.

Continuity of Operations

Much time and effort may be saved by planning the work so that many operations may be performed each time an instrument is picked up or adjusted. For example, assume that you must draw a series of parallel lines half an inch apart. This is most quickly done by setting the dividers at half an inch and marking off the locations for all the

lines at one time. Then the dividers are put aside, and the lines are drawn with the T-square, starting with the top line and going on to each successive lower line. In the same way, the centers of a series of circles should all be located, then the circles drawn. Other applications of this principle are too numerous to mention.

Transferring and Duplicating Dimensions

Frequently it is necessary to mark off a dimension equal to one on another drawing, or repeat a given dimension many times on the same drawing. Of course, the dimension may be repeated by reading it on a ruler, remembering it, and then (with the aid of the ruler) marking it off in its new position, but other methods are less tedious and more accurate:

1. *Use dividers.* Operating the dividers with one hand as previously described, the draftsman can quickly set them to the given dimension; then with this setting he can mark off the dimensions in the required locations.

2. *Mark the dimensions on a transfer agent.* Mark off the dimensions on the straight edge of a piece of scrap paper (or any other convenient transfer agent), lay the edge of the paper in the required positions, and mark dimensions on the drawing.

When a series of divisions is to be made along a line, it is better to measure them all from one common reference point rather than to go from the last point to the next each time. This procedure will avoid a cumulative error. For example, if we are to mark four one-inch divisions along a line, it is better to measure each one from the starting point, rather than to mark off one more inch beyond the previous mark each time. If the second method is used, a slight error in marking off the first point will affect the starting point from which the second inch is measured, and such errors will be cumulative in successive measurements.

LETTERING

In lettering, as in all phases of graphic communication, attractiveness is determined by the general characteristics and proper layout of areas, rather than by the details of any one part. To this end, guide lines for all the lettering should be drawn before commencing to make the letters themselves.

Horizontal guide lines are needed for both the top and bottom of the letters, and should be accurately spaced so that each line of lettering defines a uniform, horizontal area. Vertical guide lines are drawn to

insure a uniform slope throughout all the lettering. Just what slope is selected is not so important as that a uniform slope be maintained. Vertical lettering is becoming increasingly popular, particularly on business charts. However, some draftsmen prefer to slope their letters to the right. Their standard practice is to make the slope of the letters the same as that of the hypotenuse of a right triangle whose base is two units and height five units. Regardless of the particular slope employed, guide lines are drawn at random over the area to be lettered, irrespective of the number and spacing of the letters.

The draftsman watches the nearest vertical guide line to help him keep the slope of the letters uniform, and terminates the letters at the horizontal guide lines. The actual lettering is done freehand.

The lettering illustrated in the text, and frequently used on business charts, is known as the single stroke commercial gothic. Upon careful examination it may be observed that each part of every letter is either an ellipse or a straight line. There are no unnecessary parts; serifs, variations in width of line, extra frills, and so on have been eliminated. The width of the letters is not uniform; "W" and "M" stand out as particularly wide letters, and "I" and "J" as narrow letters.

There is no rigid standard for the proportions of the letters, but a consistent alphabet should be followed. That is, for a given height there is no one width that a "W" should have, but whatever width is used should be slightly greater than the width of the other letters. Compressed letters are narrow in proportion to their height, while extended letters are unusually wide.

A B C D E F G H I J K L M

N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0

Figure 23. Alphabet for Lettering

On many business charts upper case letters (capital letters) only are used, with first letters of important words made larger than the following letters. This system is known as "caps and small caps" and is recommended for the student whose time for studying lettering is limited. Large caps are made about one and one-quarter times the height of small caps. (See Illustration 50, page 319.)

The lettering pencil or pen should be held lightly between the fingers —not tightly grasped near the point so that each stroke cuts a groove in the paper. All parts of the letters are of the same thickness, and should be completed with single, steady strokes. It does not follow

that a whole letter should be completed without lifting the pen from the paper, but that each of the three lines in an "H" for example, should be finished with one stroke of the pen.

When the student has become familiar with the form of each letter, the major part of his attention should be devoted to making attractive groups of letters. Although there are no fixed requirements for spacing, adherence to the following "rules of thumb" will assist the beginner.

1. *Spacing between letters.* The spacing between the letters should be such that the intervening areas are approximately the same. Of course, if the areas are to be equal, the horizontal distances between the extremities of each pair of letters will not be the same. In a combination such as "AV" the right extremity of the "A" may be directly beneath the left extremity of the "V", whereas with "MN" there must be considerable horizontal distance between the extremities in order to separate the letters. In all cases the areas between the letters should be approximately the same.

2. *Spacing between words.* The space between two words should be about the space required by the letter "O".

3. *Spacing between lines.* The vertical distance between two lines of lettering may be equal to the height of the letters, or the height of the smaller letters if there is a difference in height of the smaller letters of each line. This separation may be varied, but it never should be so small that the top of one line practically touches letters in the line above, nor so great that the continuity between lines is lost.

A great variety of alphabets may be obtained by varying the height, proportions, slope, character of line, and spacing – all without deviating from the general style of commercial gothic.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Explain why the following statement is false: "A business man must become a skilled draftsman and artist before he is qualified to use graphic communication in daily business life."
2. Explain how cross-section paper may be used to advantage in drawing business charts.
3. What is the purpose of the T-square?
4. What are drafting triangles used for?
5. Explain the purpose and manipulation of dividers.
6. Differentiate between the three types of lines used in drawing business charts.
7. What is the function of horizontal and vertical guide lines for lettering?

8. State the rules for the spacing of lettering and explain the reason for each.

9. Describe the movement of the fingers, wrist, and arm in drawing a long horizontal line.

10. Explain why a common reference point should be used when marking off successive divisions along a line.

11. Define transfer agent and explain its use in drawing.

PROBLEMS

1. Using letters one-eighth of an inch high, letter the alphabet.

2. (a) Follow the directions on drafting procedure to draw a 4″ × 5″ rectangle in the center of an 8½″ × 11″ paper.
(b) Using dividers, divide the vertical side into three equal parts, and through these divisions draw horizontal lines across the rectangle.
(c) Draw diagonals between the corners of the rectangle.
(d) Through the dividing points on each vertical side draw to the base, lines which are parallel to the diagonals.
(e) Draw five equally spaced vertical lines within the rectangle. These should intersect with intersections between the diagonals.

CHAPTER 13

Graphic Layout

DIVISION OF SPACE INTO AREAS

All graphic communications involve the division of space into *areas* that are pleasing to the eye. Emphasis is achieved by focusing the attention on the most important area first and then on the others in the order of their importance. Unity is attained by the proper relation between the center of interest and the background.

For example, on a letterhead the large area devoted to the firm's name first attracts the reader's attention, telling him whom the letter is from. The address and telephone number of the sender are given in smaller type and the reader may not notice them unless he has occasion to use this information. Without the division of the whole area into heading, subheading, background, and margin there would be no unity to make possible the emphasis on the main heading.

The size and location of each part of the letterhead design provide the foundation for the details of color and style which make each letterhead distinctive. It is the general appearance of the whole composition which the reader associates with the company, not the detail of any one part. Change the wording—the coded language—without changing the general appearance, and the alteration will not be noticed without a careful reading. But re-design the layout and the reader will look twice to see if the letter is from the same company.

Areas More Important than Detail

The size and relation of the areas in the chart should be determined before the detail is considered. If a portrait artist executes a perfect drawing of both an eye and a mouth, but then finds that they are not placed the proper distance apart, his drawing of a face is worthless.

The above principles apply to any graphic layout, whether it be a printed page, a chart, or an oil painting. Study the advertisement in a magazine or visit the Museum of Fine Arts and you will be able to criticize composition on the basis of these fundamentals.

CONVENTIONS

The details of graphic art and of all art vary with different cultures and geographic locations. At any time and place there are many styles to which a person must conform if his work is to be acceptable. The clothing which men wore in colonial days had to have the same general characteristics as those of modern suits in order to give protection and permit freedom of movement; but the details of texture and trimming differed with the times. No one texture is necessarily any better than another, but the judgment of contemporary society dictates that current styles be followed. Many of the instructions on chart design given in this text are the present conventional details to which we usually conform—style of printing, location of scales, etc. They are not inflexible requirements. But the fundamentals of unity and emphasis require the proper relation between the areas, regardless of the particular conventions that may be employed.

ELEMENTS IN GRAPHIC DESIGN

The first step in a graphic layout problem is to decide upon the size and location of the area to be devoted to each part of the whole design. Sometimes a number of rough sketches are made before a satisfactory composition is obtained. The following elements must be carefully considered.

Margins

Margins make the transition between the edge of the paper and the more important sections of the design. When properly used, margins are not wasteful of space, but provide the background necessary to display the remainder of the composition. Even a pencil black line must have a lighter background in order to be visible.

The margin at the bottom is often greater than the margins at the top and sides. This convention arises from the fact that any structure must have a firm base to support the upper members, and the appearance of greater strength provided by a wide base is carried over into graphic art.

The size of the margins determines the proportion of the total area available for writing or diagrams. Spacious margins give the impression of formality and are not particularly desirable in business communications except on brief letters, where wide margins may be used to spread the letter down the page, giving it better proportions. On an 8½ by

11-inch sheet, margins are ordinarily at least one inch wide. If the paper is to be bound along the left-hand edge, another three-quarters of an inch should be allowed on this edge.

Background

Background area of a contrasting shade or color is necessary for transitions and for unity. A poster containing a great deal of information in fine print will not attract the attention accorded to a poster with a few words placed on a spacious background. Ordinary writing is difficult to read if the top of one row of letters touches the bottom of the letters above. On the other hand, a very generous space between lines destroys the needed unity between them.

Center of Interest

Every composition should have one center of interest to which all other factors are supporting and subordinate. A picture with space divided into exactly equal parts gives no more satisfaction than a tie score in a ball game. If two separate ideas demand equal emphasis, they should be made contributory to a more important central idea, or two separate layouts should be made.

In order to obtain graphic emphasis, any one or a combination of the following devices may be used:

Size. Very frequently the most important part of a composition is the largest part, in the same way that a speaker may emphasize his most important point by increasing the volume of his voice.

Space. In contrast with increasing size, the importance of a part may be emphasized by placing it in a background of space.

Converging Lines. In a painting of a cottage in the distance, attention may be focused upon the relatively small cottage by two converging roads coming from different parts of the foreground.

Proportions

Each of the above elements (center of interest, background, margins) must be balanced with the others to make a design which has attractive proportions. The *size* of each element, considered by itself, means nothing. Correctness is determined by the ***proportions*** between parts of the design.

Character of Line

The line work and the shape of the outlines in a graphic layout do much to make it attractive or otherwise. Different types of line work express different characteristics of thought and create an "atmosphere"

that is unconsciously associated with the idea that the picture is intended to convey.

Many cameras may be adjusted so that they focus sharply on the person or object whose photograph is desired, and the distant background becomes indistinct and blurred. In the same way, the center of interest in any graphic layout may be emphasized by making its outline concise and definite.

When an artist looks at nature, he does not see lines. No lines as we ordinarily think of them exist in nature. A line is merely a device to represent a change in the amount of light seen. Often the edge of an object is the cause of this change. We see the edge because the background is either lighter or darker. When an object is very narrow, its two edges may be represented by one straight line; on a rough surface the edges of many smaller areas appear as lines. Hence, we come back to the importance of considering areas in a graphic layout rather than the lines themselves. Lines are used to indicate the edges of areas.

LAYOUT OF TITLE PAGES AND POSTERS

The customary layout of a title page is a simple illustration of the principles considered in the preceding section. The title itself is set up in heavy print and placed on a spacious background. The author's name, closely associated with the title, is placed immediately beneath it. The publisher's name, date, etc. are placed at a respectable distance at the bottom of the page. Sometimes the series to which the book belongs is placed at the top where it performs a minor, introductory function. A subtitle in smaller print may be placed under the main title to further classify the subject dealt with in the book. The whole arrangement is a balance between space and type size to place the desired amount of emphasis on each item.

The designer of a title page or poster decides the logical order and the importance of each piece of information which goes on the layout. The most important item becomes the center of interest, preceded and followed by the others in logical order and emphasized with ink or space according to their importance.

Directions for Designing a Title Page

Although all the following steps may not actually be performed on paper by the professional artist, they will be helpful to the beginner:

1. List the items in logical order. For the title page of a book this list may be the series, the title itself, the author, his affiliations, the publisher, his address, and the date of publication. On a poster an-

nouncing a meeting, the order might be the name of the sponsoring organization, the name of the speaker, the subject he will discuss, the time, place, and date of the meeting, the price of admission, and other details.

2. Group the items in order of importance. The most important item—the main title or topic—will probably be by itself. Groups of lesser importance may contain several items.

3. Select the size and style of lettering for each of the above groups, giving them emphasis in order.

4. Make a rough copy of the page, laying out the area for each item in its proper location according to the order determined under step 1. Do not try to draw each letter in detail but sketch the words in quickly so that the size and location of each line may be criticized. Sometimes it is helpful to letter each item on a separate sheet of paper in order to determine the area it will require in the given style of lettering and also to find the midpoint of the line. This area may then be outlined on the rough draft of the title page.

5. After finding a satisfactory layout for the whole page, make up the detailed final copy.

PROBLEMS

1. Analyze the graphic design of (a) a magazine advertisement, (b) the package of a consumer product such as cereal or tooth paste, (c) an automobile, (d) a man's suit, and (e) a woman's hat. Use the principles and terms discussed in this chapter.

2. Select a poster and show how the steps in designing a title page or poster have been followed in laying it out.

3. List four methods of obtaining emphasis in graphic communication and compare them with analogous methods which may be used in oral and written communication.

4. Design a letterhead containing the following items: Repairs and Alterations a Specialty, 55 Main Street, LIB 1005, Northville, Mass., Allen F. Jones, Carpenter and Builder. Follow the directions for designing a title page or poster. Since this is to be a letterhead, it should not extend more than two inches down from the top of the paper.

5. Design a title page for your work in this course. Include the following items: the date, the name of the university, the name of the course, your own name, "Laboratory Work," and the name of the college or major department.

6. On a sheet of 8½″ × 11″ paper draw a line *AB* 9″ long, 1″ away from and parallel to the lower 11″ edge of the paper. Designate the left-hand

end of the line as point *A* and the right-hand end as point *B*. On line *AB* locate point *C* 4″ to the right of point *A*. At point *C* draw line *CD* perpendicular to *AB* and 3″ long. On line *CD* locate point *E* one inch above point *C*. Locate point *F* on line *AB* and 6″ from point *A*. At point

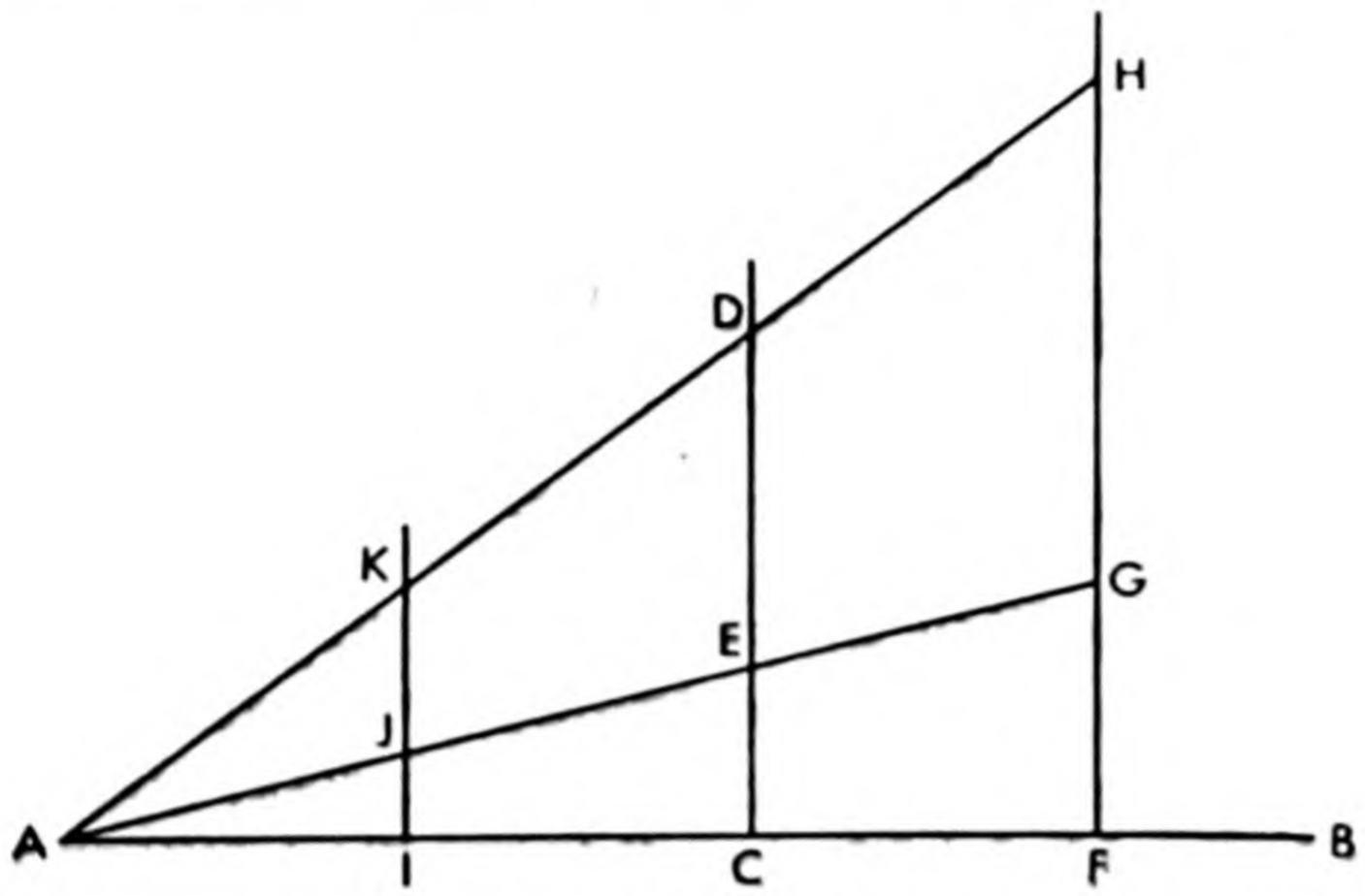


Figure 24. Construction for Problem 6

F draw a perpendicular to the top of the paper. Similarly, locate point *I* on line *AB* 2″ from *A*, and draw a perpendicular toward the top of the paper. (See Figure 24.)

Draw a line connecting points *A* and *E* and intersecting the other two perpendicular lines at points *J* (on line through *I*) and *G* (on line through *F*). Also draw a line connecting points *A* and *D*, and intersecting the other two perpendiculars at points *K* and *H*. If this is properly done, line *IJ* will be ½″ long; line *IK*, 1½″ long; line *GF*, 1½″ long; and line *FH*, 4½″ long.

Now observe that line *IK* has one-half the length of *CD* and it is also located at one-half the distance from *A* to *C*. Also observe that line *FH* is half again as long as *CD* and that it is half again as far from point *A* as *CD* is.

Using this principle, divide the distance *AC* into thirds, and at the two-thirds point draw a perpendicular which is two-thirds the height of *CD*. Also find the proper points and lines which are twice as long as *CD*, one and one-quarter times as long, and one-quarter as long.

Observe that every line which has been drawn perpendicular to *AB* is divided into the same proportions by the line *AE*. That is, the lower portion of each perpendicular is one-third of the total height.

The principle of similar triangles illustrated by this problem may be applied whenever it is desired to change the size of lines making up a chart and yet retain the same proportions.

CHAPTER 14

Relationship Charts

In speech and in writing we can mention only one thing at a time. If we are describing a house, for example, we can speak about the general shape of the house, its color, the front door, and so on. As we describe the house bit by bit, our listener fits together the items of description until he has formed in his mind a complete picture of it.

If we could use an actual picture instead of a word description of the house, the nature of the communication process would be quite different. The listener would see the whole picture at one time, rather than having to wait for us to build up the parts of the description. After seeing the house as a whole, he would then look at the parts. The order in which he looked at the parts would not be determined by their order of mention in speech or writing, but by the location and graphic emphasis given to them in the picture.

The reason for this basic difference between the two forms of communication is that speech and writing have only one dimension while a picture has two dimensions. In speech and writing every word comes either before or after the other words in the message; in a picture, one part may be (a) before or after, or (b) above or below the other parts. The parts need not be presented one at a time or in any particular order, and the picture gives us a more rapid and accurate description. A physical object such as a house actually has three dimensions, and to understand exactly how the house looks, we need to see it ourselves. If we cannot actually see it, a picture with two dimensions will communicate a reasonably accurate description of the appearance. It is much harder to describe the house accurately with words because words can mention the parts in one order only. For instance, we could name in order and describe the windows of the first floor, and then those of the second floor, but additional words would be needed to show relation between the windows on the first floor and those on

	Right Side	Center	Left Side
Roof	Gable Window		Gable Window
Second Floor	Window	Small Window	Window
First Floor	Bay Window	Front Door	Bay Window

Illustration 42. Transition Between a Relationship Chart and a Picture

the second floor. We could also list and describe the windows which come one above another, but in either case many extra words are necessary to describe completely what is above and below and also on each side of every window. The windows may be listed as they appear in horizontal rows, or in vertical columns, but a picture will communicate both the horizontal and vertical relationships at one glance.

BASES OF CLASSIFICATION

The order in which things are named in a list generally has a significant meaning. If you were asked to list the teachers you have had in school, you would probably mention first the one you had thought the most about—that is, the one who, to you, was the most important. The reason for this reaction may be that you liked the course, that he was your first teacher, or that you had to work hard in the course. The teacher given second position on the list might be there for another reason, but the very fact that you mention him in second place indicates that from your standpoint he is second in importance among your teachers.

Rather than listing your teachers according to their importance in your own thinking you might also use many other *bases of classification*, naming teachers according to their age, their ability, the distance to their homes, the difficulty of their subjects. Any one of these relationships could be shown by the order of the names on the list, but only one relationship can be shown by any one list given in ordinary speech or writing. However, the receiver of the list is likely to give more attention to the first name and the last name on the list, even though some basis of classification other than importance has been used. In

other words, a receiver usually (perhaps subconsciously) thinks of the first and last things mentioned as more important than the others.

Thus we see that a list not only names items, but it also tells us something about them through the order in which the items are named. There are many possible bases of classification for determining the order of listing. A few of the major ones are mentioned below.

Order of importance. The most important item is usually the first one, followed by the others in order. Less frequently, things are named in increasing order of importance, so that the most important one comes at the end.

This is a very general classification, and should be qualified by stating the more specific characteristics by which importance has been judged, or by noting the person whose judgment the list represents. The basis of judgment may be one or more of the possibilities listed below.

Order of size. The particular characteristic which has been used as an index of size should be stated. For example, the size of people might be based upon either their weight or their height; one of these should be specified.

Chronological order. Business statistics very frequently are arranged according to time.

Order of monetary value. This basis of classification is closely related to that of size. Rather than a physical characteristic such as weight or height, monetary value is taken as an index of size, and possibly also of importance.

Close relationship. Although a simple list does not contain the topics and subtopics found in an outline, items which are closely related may be placed next to each other. This procedure is followed on standard accounting forms. For example, the two accounts "cash on hand" and "cash in the bank" are closely related and are sometimes pooled as "cash." Therefore, they are placed next to each other on the accounting balance sheet, permitting the reader to consider them together as a single account, if he so desires.

Logical order. Like order of importance and order of size, this base of classification is another very general one. The logic may be derived from any of the other orders in this list.

Geographical order. Frequently the names of cities or countries are arranged according to their order upon a certain route of travel, or on the basis of some other special relationship.

Alphabetical order. When it is desirable to name several things and not attach any significance to the order in which they are named,

alphabetical order should be used. It is the closest we can come to impartial treatment in list form. Even in an alphabetical list, however, the reader is likely to give more attention to the first and the last items, neglecting those in the middle.

Any one basis of classification may be used for a simple list. If we wish to show a second relationship between the items by grouping them according to another basis of classification, then we must make a second list which duplicates the items on the first list. For example, if we were to classify the three major manufacturers of low-priced automobiles according to the ages of the companies, and also according to value of assets, the two lists would be: (1) General Motors, Ford, Chrysler; and (2) Ford, General Motors, Chrysler.

OUTLINES

The relationship chart combines the advantages of words and pictures. Words may be used to express ideas which are not physical objects, such as authority, importance, kindness, and which, therefore, cannot be pictured. By placing the names of things on a relationship chart, we may use the picture's two dimensions to advantage in showing the relation between those things. On the chart, both the horizontal and the vertical positions of a word mean something. They give us more information about the relation between a particular item and the other items on the chart, in much the same way that the picture of a house enables us to tell immediately which windows are above, below, and beside any one window.

The outline is a simple type of relationship chart. The items may be spaced from left to right according to their importance, and beneath each other according to a logical order.

A table of contents of a book is an example. The heading of the page —Contents—may be placed at the top center. The names of the major parts also may be placed in the center of the page, emphasized by space above and below; the importance of other headings often is indicated by their nearness to the left margin. In the complete outline, the reader can tell at a glance which items and topics have equal importance because in this arrangement they are placed the same distance across the page, and they fall into definite groups. The vertical position of an item is not determined by its importance as a main topic or a subtopic, but by its position in a logical sequence.

Bases of Classification Frequently Used in Outlines

The bases of classification most frequently used in an outline are order of importance and logical sequence. Using order of importance, several groups of varying degrees of importance are established. The most important items, those which fall in the first group, become the main topics and are placed at the extreme left; the topics in the other groups may be indented from the left margin according to the relative importance of their groups. For example, in Illustration 43 the states form one group which begins uniformly at the left margin. The large cities form a second group, each member of which is indented from the margin. Small cities are indented still farther. Of course, any other characteristic of the cities, instead of population, might be used for determining which items receive the subordinate positions in the outline. In any outline the topics are spaced vertically (up and down the page) according to some other sequence. In Illustration 43 it is geographical order when one is traveling from east to west. The basis for the vertical spacing of the topics and subtopics is not always the same. For example, the large cities might be listed down the page in geographical order, while the subtopics are listed in order of size. Thereby uniformity and clarity would be sacrificed in the interest of additional detail.

In making the outline of a book or chapter such as this one, it is fairly easy to select topics and subtopics, but it is difficult to determine the best order for the main topics. Each of the different types of charts in this chapter is easier to understand if it is compared with the other types; hence the last position is desirable for each one. But writing allows us to discuss only one thing at a time, so that some one order of listing for successive study is necessary, and consequently the charts are listed in the order of their simplicity. Even at that, more explanation is necessary in this section on the outline because the outline cannot be compared with the other charts which follow.

Preservation of Coordinate and Subordinate Relations

Regardless of the basis of classification used for listing the main topics down the page, each subtopic must always be placed under its own major topic. Otherwise the outline would degenerate into a series of lists, one of main topics and the other of subtopics, with nothing to show the connection between them.

When a subtopic should be included in an outline, but does not belong under any of the major topics, it should not be changed to a

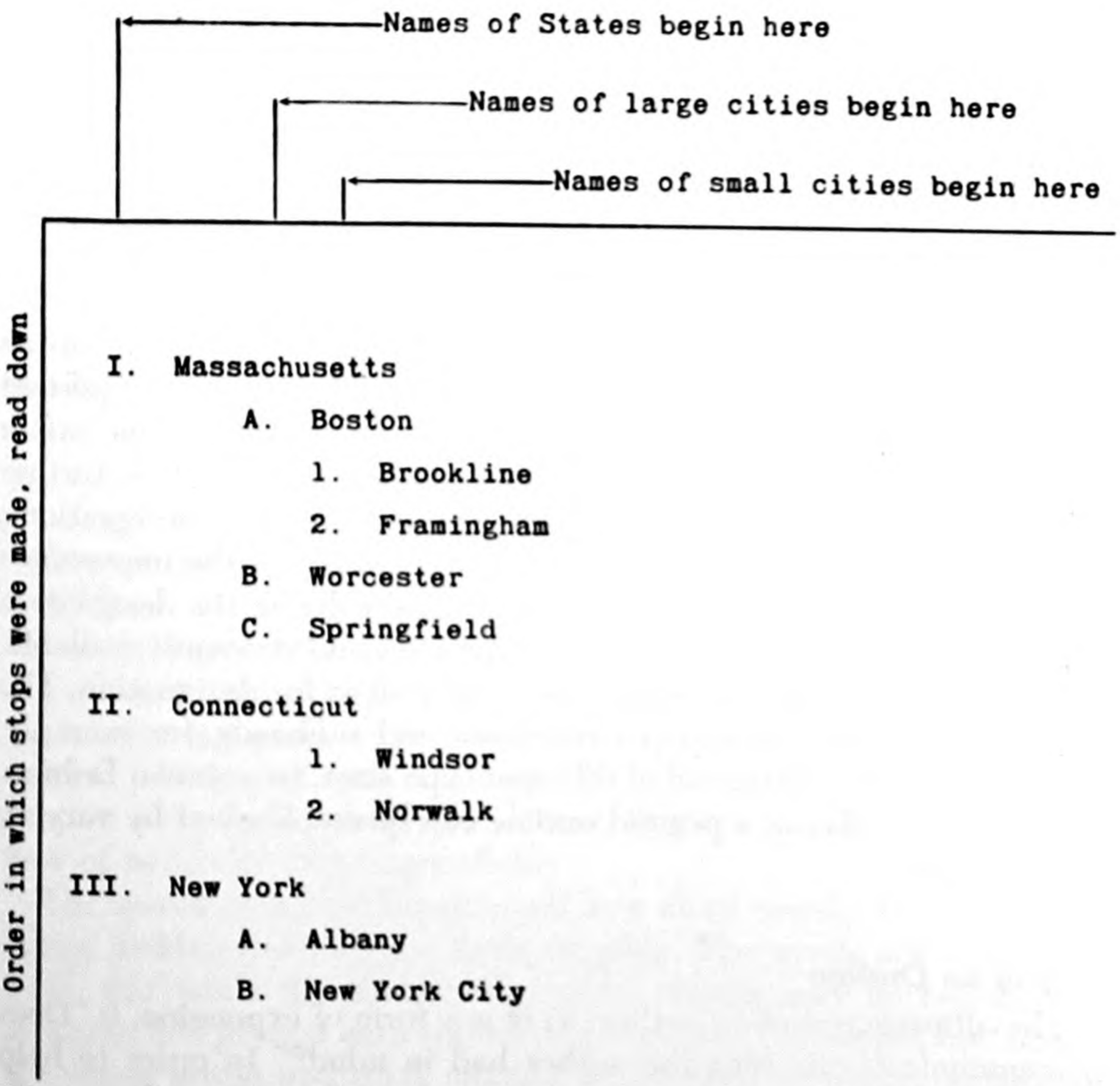


Illustration 43. Outline with Notations Showing Bases of Classification

major topic, thereby giving it undue importance, but a major topic *Miscellaneous* should be created for it. By the same reasoning, if there are no subtopics under a main topic, minor subtopics should not be elevated in rank to major topics. This is shown in Illustration 43; Windsor and Norwalk remain secondary subtopics under Connecticut, even though there are no subtopics.

Differentiation by Use of Contrasting Designations

In addition to the graphic classification of the subject matter in an outline, contrasting designations may also be used. The most important topics are numbered with Roman numerals or capital letters, and minor parts are designated by Arabic numerals and lower case letters; further subordination is indicated by parentheses around these designations. The form of the designation (I, A, 1, a, etc.) indicates the importance of the item, and the numerical or alphabetical value of the designation indicates its order. When a variety of type sizes and styles are available, these may be used for the entire words as well as for designation. The distinction between newspaper headlines and subheads, for example, is accomplished with the aid of different type sizes. In a similar fashion, the graphic display of a printed outline can be emphasized by varying sizes of type.

Test of an Outline

The ultimate test of an outline, as of any form of expression, is "Does it communicate the idea the author had in mind?" In order to help meet this ultimate test, certain more technical tests are frequently valuable. The correctness of an outline may be tested by writing the bases of classification along the sides of the outline, checking each item to see that it is in agreement with both bases of classification, also checking each subtopic to be sure it is under the correct major topic (see Illustration 43).

Coordinate Use of Outline and Paragraph

The outline and the paragraph are not mutually exclusive; they should be used together. The topics in the outline then become paragraph headings which are an inestimable help in making written material attractive to a reader. The distinction between major topics and subtopics may be made by the use of different sizes of type and also by spacing, as in the outline. In fact, paragraph headings should be noth-

ing more than the outline spread through the article rather than presented on one page. When one prepares manuscript on a typewriter, the variety of size and style of letter is limited; consequently, the exact and uniform spacing of headings and subheads becomes even more important.

The outline, then, is a simple and effective device for showing the relation between topics and subtopics. It uses space for this purpose, whereas the paragraph alone requires additional words which tax the mental effort of the reader and reduce the possibility of full communication.

CLASSIFICATION AND FLOW CHARTS

One of the most widely used applications of the classification and flow chart is that of showing the relations among the officers of a business (Figure 26). Different vertical levels indicate different levels of authority, and the spacing across the page follows the steps in the manufacturing process. In other words, both the horizontal and the vertical positions of each name may be significant—two bases of classification have been used. Lines connecting the names also show the flow of authority and responsibility.

The names on a classification and flow chart usually are enclosed in boxes, making them appear more tangible. The words are an abstract code, and while the names of physical objects may be replaced by pictures, this process entails time and expense. The simple box around the words brings in a small amount of universal language, making the whole chart more attractive.

On some charts it is not necessary to label the lines of flow; on others, names and arrows on the lines are necessary. A chart to represent a simple business transaction is shown in Figure 25. Here designations and arrow heads are placed on the flow lines. On the chart of a

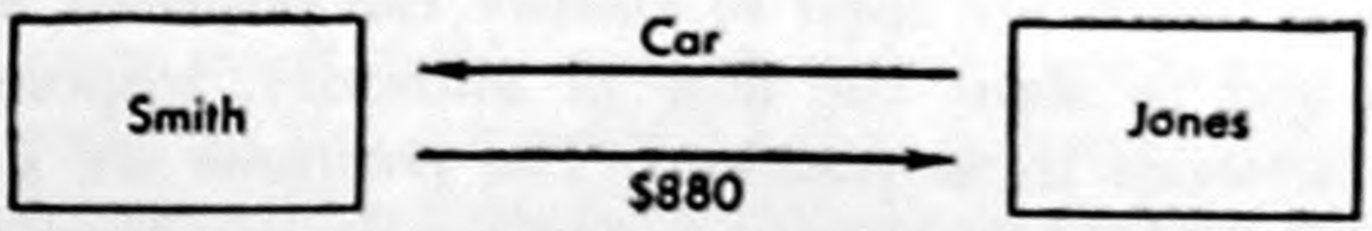


Figure 25. A Simple Business Transaction Shown in Chart Form

business organization (Figure 26), the single lines really represent two lines: one for responsibility, and the other for authority.

Classification and flow charts are a valuable communication device

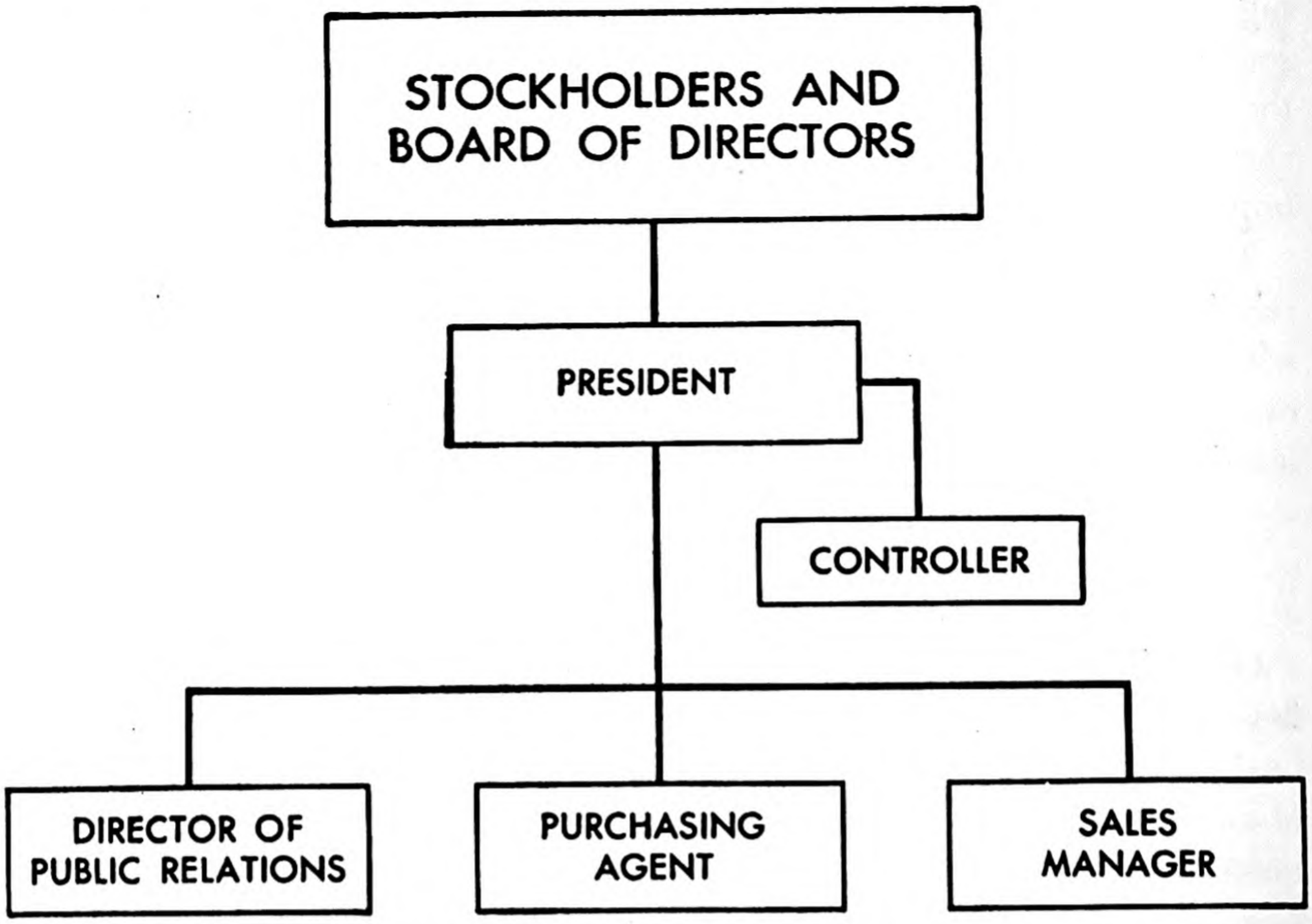


Figure 26. Organization Chart

whenever we have a situation in which there are (a) relatively stable or permanent items—men, cities, or machines—between which there is (b) a flow of other items—money, information, responsibility, materials, etc. The relation between the stable items may be shown, using either one or two bases of classification, and the flow of the other things between them may also be shown.

The term *classification and flow chart* is a general one; there are many different types whose names are derived from specialized applications of the same principles.

Organization Charts

Organization charts are used to classify the positions in a business organization and to show the flow of authority, responsibility, and information between these positions. The positions are shown in the boxes of the chart and the lines connecting the positions indicate the flow of authority and responsibility. Horizontal and vertical axes are not customarily shown on organization charts. Nevertheless, they exist, and if they are clearly defined in the mind of the chart draftsman, they will contribute greatly to the clarity and simplicity of an organization chart. The vertical axis is ordinarily one of authority, with high au-

thority at the top, decreasing to little or no authority at the bottom of the chart. Since salaries paid for business positions are roughly comparable to the authority involved, it is useful to check the construction of the chart in terms of salaries as well as authority. Of course, a rigid interpretation of authority and salary is not in order, particularly when these are not mentioned on a printed scale, but adherence to the general relationship is always implied and should be followed by the chart draftsman.

There is no other basis of classification generally used for the horizontal axis of organization charts analagous to the use of authority for the vertical axis. This leaves the chart-maker at liberty to select a good basis of classification for the horizontal axis, one which will contribute to the simplicity and clarity of the chart.

Compound Boxes

Compound boxes are a useful device for adding detail to an organization chart without making the appearance too complicated. As shown in Figure 27 the compound box allows a smaller organization chart to be placed within the large, over-all chart. The top line of a box, such as that for the Board of Directors in Figure 27, is extended to form a larger box which encloses the organization of the Board of Directors. This larger, compound box indicates that for the rest of the organization the Board of Directors functions as a single unit. However, there must also be an organization within the Board of Directors, and this can be depicted without confusion by placing it within the compound box.

Careful spacing and weight of line are necessary to have compound boxes which make for over-all simplicity of the entire chart without sacrifice of valuable detail. The boundary lines for the compound boxes may be twice as heavy as those for the inner boxes, and generous spacing should be allowed between the edges of the compound boxes and the internal boxes, also between the compound boxes and other parts of the chart.

An organization chart with a compound box may be constructed with one vertical scale for the compound boxes and with different vertical scales for each internal organization within a compound box. Of course, the vertical scales are not usually shown on organization charts as they are on tables or mathematical axes, but they exist, nevertheless, and if they are kept in mind by the chart designer they will contribute greatly toward clarity and accuracy. In Figure 27, the Treasurer of the Board of Directors has an Assistant to the Treasurer working

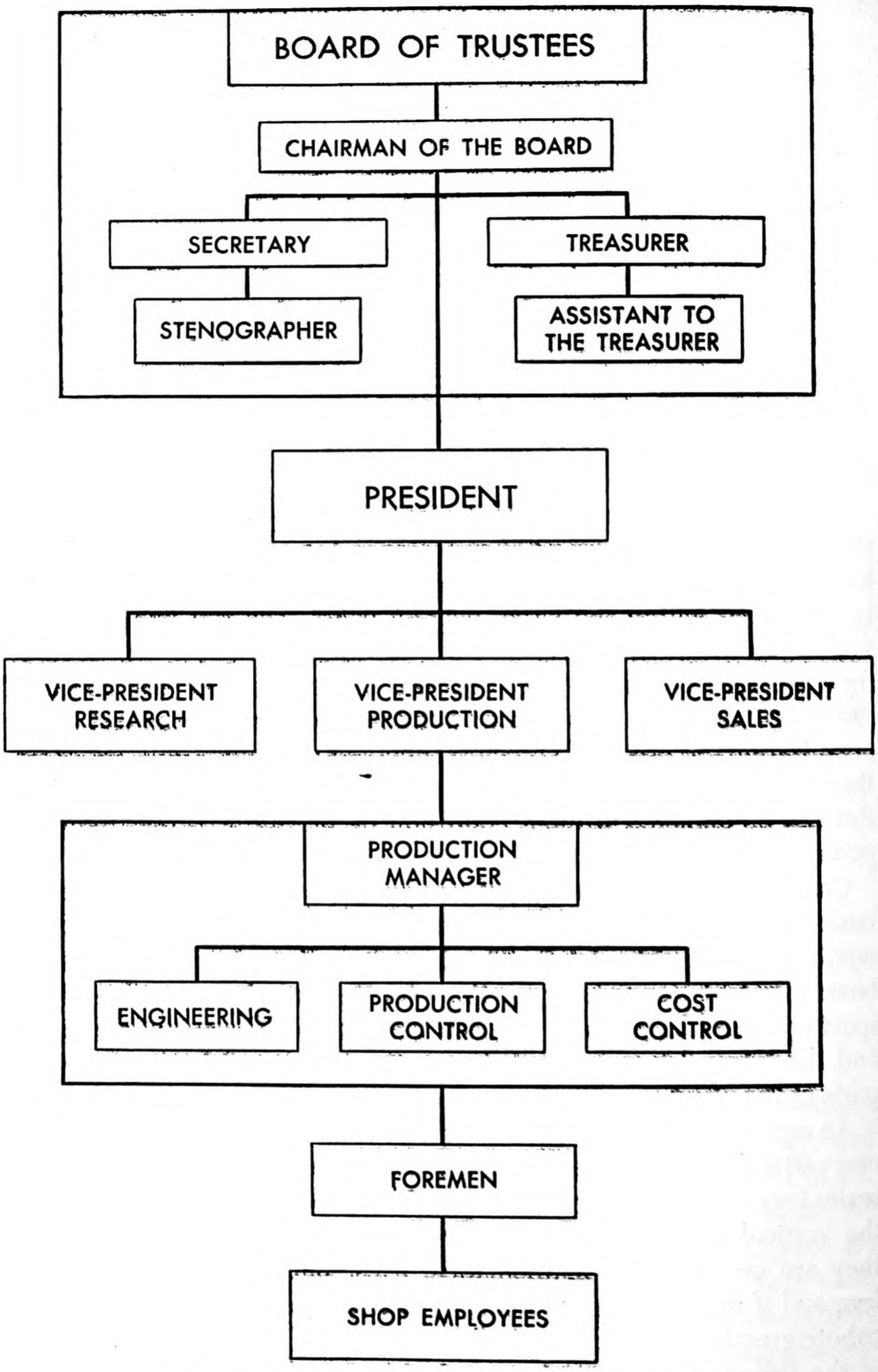


Figure 27. Organization Chart with Compound Boxes

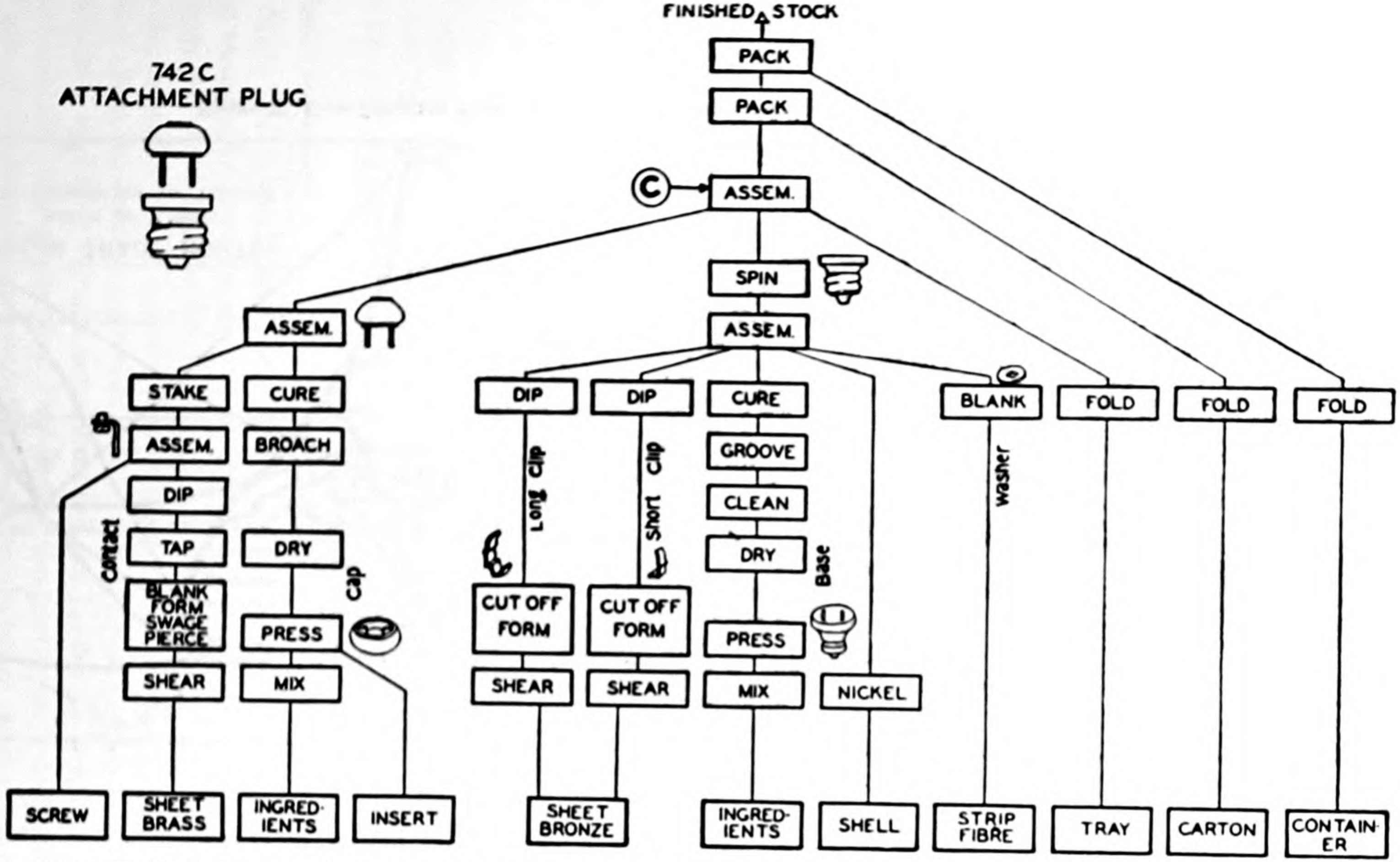


Figure 28. Flow Diagram Showing the Flow of Material Between the Processes in the Manufacture of an Attachment Plug

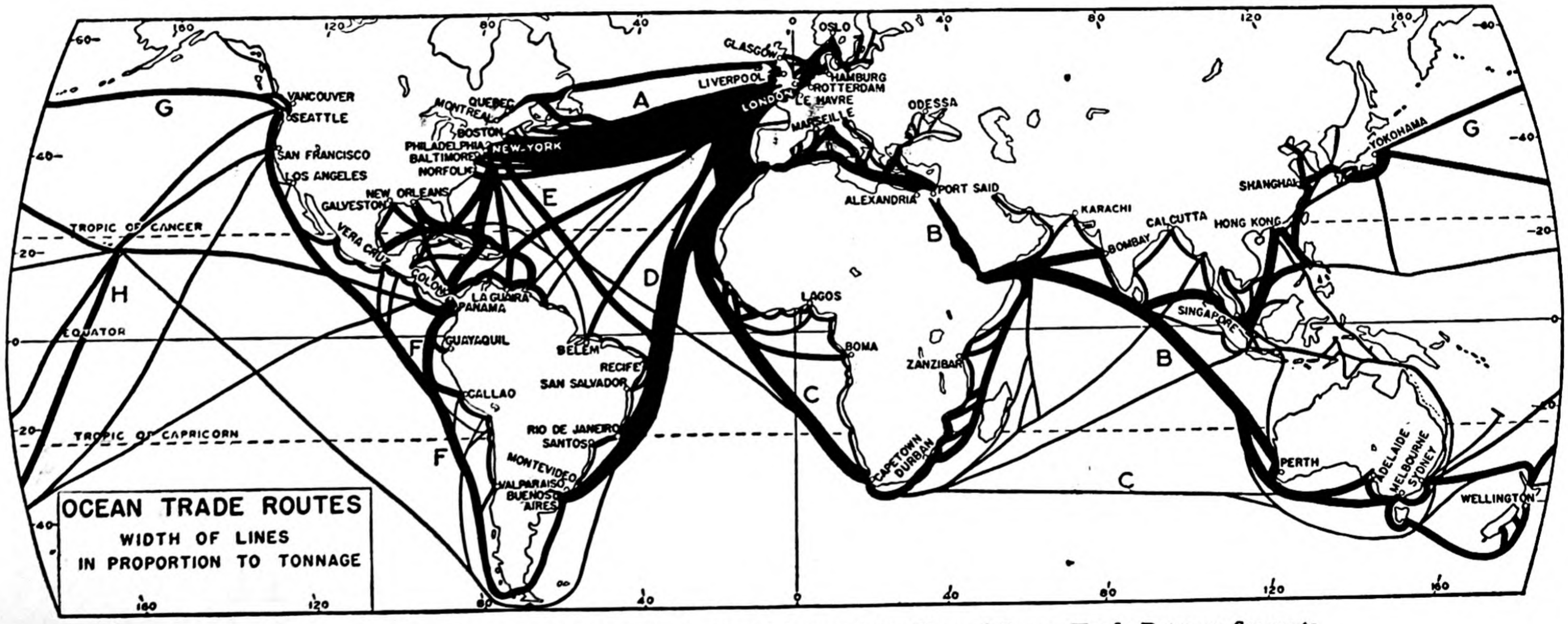


Figure 29. Flow Diagram Which Indicates the Volume of the Flow of Ocean Trade Between Seaports

for him. This position is a responsible clerical one rather than an administrative one. It does not carry the authority of the Board of Directors and if it were to be placed on a chart according to the over-all scale of authority, it should be in the lower part of the chart. By using a separate scale within the compound box for Board of Directors, all of the positions directly connected with this Board are brought within the same area, but without the implication that the Assistant to the Treasurer is a more important position than that of the President or Vice-President who are below the Board of Directors on the over-all scale.

Many functions in a large business organization are now performed by an "office" rather than an individual alone. This office may consist of both highly paid managers and assistants who relieve them of the clerical details. So far as the rest of the business is concerned, the office functions as a unit; work is prepared by the assistants in the office under the supervision of the managers. The use of compound boxes in an organization chart makes this concept clear. It gives permanency to the organization because responsibility and authority are associated with the office rather than with the individuals who may be changing positions from time to time.

Within the middle management of many manufacturing concerns, there are experts in methods engineering, production control, cost control, personnel administration, and so forth, all of whom have some (indirect) authority over the foremen and workers. The relationship is usually charted as one of line and staff organization. Actually this group of middle managers functions as a unit in directing the activities of formation and workers. The use of compound boxes for this group of middle management provides a concise graphic terminology, and in turn this terminology contributes to the smoothness and cooperation within the organization.

Flow Diagrams

Many specialized charts are used by industrial managers in explaining manufacturing processes. One type of flow diagram is shown in Figure 28. At the base of this chart there are shown the materials used in the manufacture of an attachment plug. Lines of flow going up the chart show how these materials are sent to successive manufacturing processes, and how various subassemblies are brought together for the final assembly and packaging. Sketches of the parts during that process of manufacture are appropriately placed beside boxes on the chart and make it much easier to visualize the procedure during their manu-

facture. Without these sketches, the boxes and flow lines alone would hardly constitute a clear and complete communication, but when the sketches are added to the chart, it is practically self-sufficient—a reader can understand it even without a written explanation in an accompanying paragraph. This is a good example of the coordination of verbal notations, relationship charting, and pictorial sketching to make up a communication which tells a complete story.

In addition to the above example, there are many other types of flow charts and flow diagrams which imply a specialized language of graphic symbols. All of them are applications of relationship chart principles and require only the "vocabulary" of the new symbols, which is analagous to the vocabulary of names of associates which must be learned by anyone going to work in a business organization.

Tournament Charts

Charts for elimination tournaments show the "flow" of competitors from round to round of the tournament.

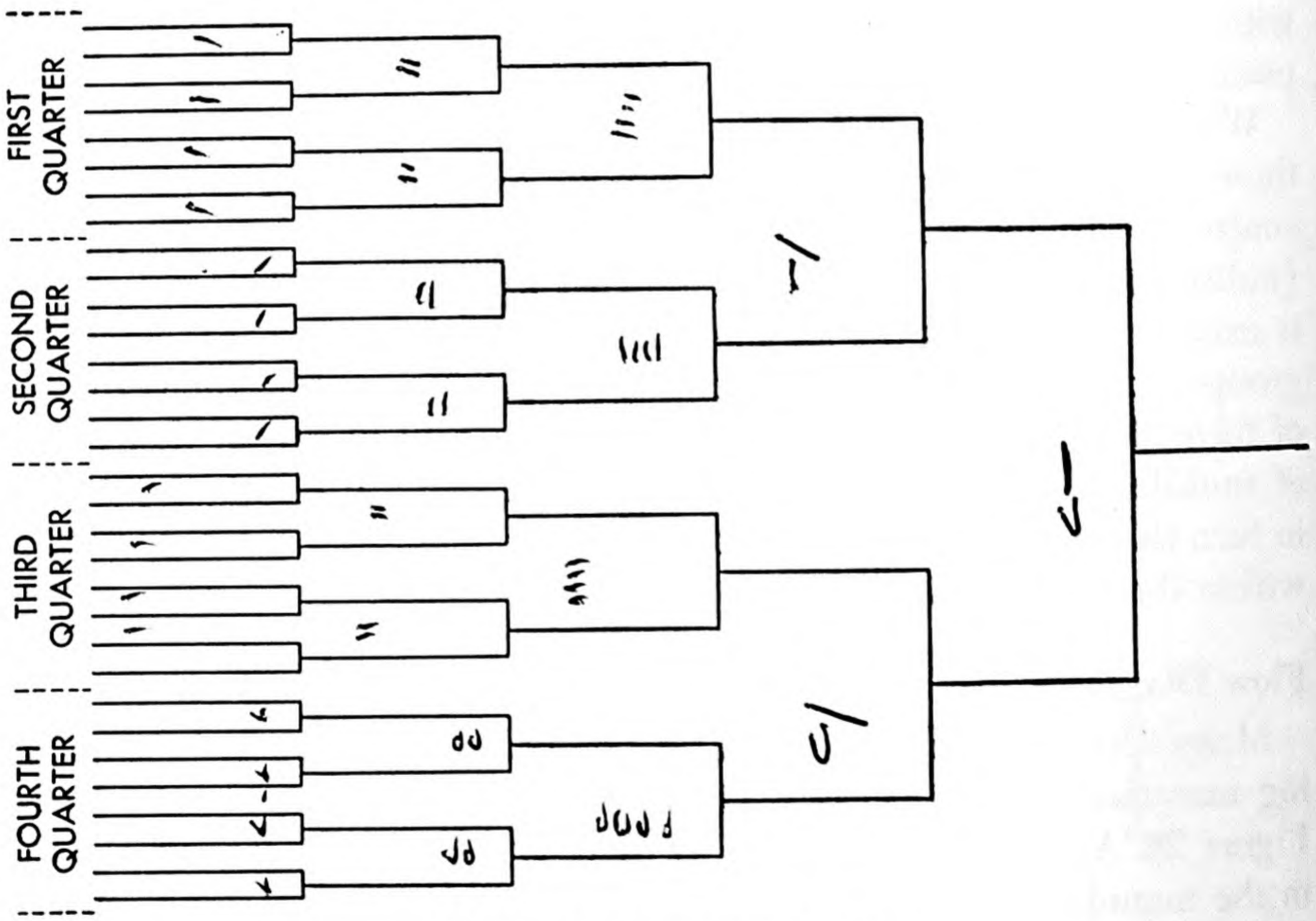


Figure 30. Tournament Chart

Genealogical Charts

These show the connection between successive generations in a person's ancestry and are very similar to tournament charts.

Material Cost in hundreds of dollars
Labor Cost in hundreds of dollars
Overhead Cost in hundreds of dollars
Total Cost in hundreds of dollars

NOT THIS

COST OF SALES in hundreds of dollars
Material
Labor
Overhead
TOTAL

As Stub

COST OF SALES in hundreds of dollars			
Materials	Labor	Over-head	TOTAL

As Caption

BUT THIS

Illustration 44. Application of Outline Principles to Caption and Stub of Tables

INTERNAL REVENUE RECEIPTS

By chief tax sources, in millions of dollars

	1944	1945
TOTAL	40,122	43,800
Income, excess profits, etc.	33,028	35,062
Spirits and wines	1,065	1,668
Tobacco manufactures	988	932
Fermented malt liquors	563	642
Estate and gift	511	643
Manufacturers' etc. excise	503	783
Documentary stamps	43	58
Other	3,429	4,013

Source: Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1946, page 318.

Illustration 45. Numerical Table

When Your Customer Asks — "WHAT SHALL I USE TO STICK?"

HERE IS THE ANSWER *

	PAPER	CARDBOARD	WOOD	GLASS	METAL	CLOTH	FELT	LEATHER	CHINA
PAPER	CICO PAPER CEMENT WHITE PASTE MUCILAGE	CICO WHITE PASTE MUCILAGE PAPER CEMENT	PAPER CEMENT CARTEX	CARTEX	CARTEX PAPER CEMENT	CARTEX MUCILAGE	CARTEX	CARTEX GLUE HOUSEHOLD CEMENT	CARTEX
CARDBOARD	CICO WHITE PASTE MUCILAGE PAPER CEMENT	CICO WHITE PASTE MUCILAGE CARTEX PAPER CEMENT	CARTEX MUCILAGE GLUE	CARTEX	CARTEX PAPER CEMENT	CARTEX MUCILAGE	CARTEX	CARTEX GLUE HOUSEHOLD CEMENT	CARTEX
WOOD	PAPER CEMENT CARTEX	CARTEX MUCILAGE GLUE	GLUE HOUSEHOLD CEMENT CARTEX	HOUSEHOLD CEMENT	HOUSEHOLD CEMENT	CARTEX GLUE	GLUE CARTEX	CARTEX HOUSEHOLD CEMENT GLUE	HOUSEHOLD CEMENT
GLASS	CARTEX	CARTEX	HOUSEHOLD CEMENT	HOUSEHOLD CEMENT	HOUSEHOLD CEMENT	CARTEX HOUSEHOLD CEMENT	CARTEX HOUSEHOLD CEMENT	HOUSEHOLD CEMENT	HOUSEHOLD CEMENT
METAL	CARTEX PAPER CEMENT	CARTEX PAPER CEMENT	HOUSEHOLD CEMENT	HOUSEHOLD CEMENT	HOUSEHOLD CEMENT	CARTEX HOUSEHOLD CEMENT	CARTEX HOUSEHOLD CEMENT	CARTEX HOUSEHOLD CEMENT	HOUSEHOLD CEMENT
CLOTH	CARTEX MUCILAGE	CARTEX MUCILAGE	CARTEX GLUE	CARTEX HOUSEHOLD CEMENT	CARTEX HOUSEHOLD CEMENT	CARTEX	CARTEX	CARTEX HOUSEHOLD CEMENT	HOUSEHOLD CEMENT
FELT	CARTEX	CARTEX	GLUE CARTEX	CARTEX HOUSEHOLD CEMENT	CARTEX HOUSEHOLD CEMENT	CARTEX	CARTEX	CARTEX HOUSEHOLD CEMENT	CARTEX HOUSEHOLD CEMENT
LEATHER	CARTEX GLUE HOUSEHOLD CEMENT	CARTEX GLUE HOUSEHOLD CEMENT	CARTEX HOUSEHOLD CEMENT GLUE	HOUSEHOLD CEMENT	CARTEX HOUSEHOLD CEMENT	CARTEX HOUSEHOLD CEMENT	CARTEX HOUSEHOLD CEMENT	GLUE HOUSEHOLD CEMENT CARTEX	CARTEX HOUSEHOLD CEMENT
CHINA	CARTEX	CARTEX	HOUSEHOLD CEMENT	HOUSEHOLD CEMENT	HOUSEHOLD CEMENT	HOUSEHOLD CEMENT	CARTEX HOUSEHOLD CEMENT	CARTEX HOUSEHOLD CEMENT	HOUSEHOLD CEMENT

Illustration 46. Verbal Table
(Courtesy of the Carter's Ink Company)

	The Sherman Act, 1890	The Clayton Act, 1914	World War I, War Labor Board, 1917-1918	National Industrial Recovery Act 1933-35	National Labor Relations Act 1935
Right to Organize	In 1893-94 the court ruled that labor unions were affected by the provisions of the anti-trust laws.	Anti-trust laws do not forbid the existence and activity of unions.	Right to organize specifically granted. No employer interference.	Specifically granted	Specifically granted.
Right to Strike (for wages, hours, and recognition).	Strikes illegal if they interfere with interstate commerce.	Supreme Court ruled that the Sherman Act was not substantially changed.	At least 30 days notice to be given.		Specifically granted.
Sympathetic Strikes		Not favored in court interpretations		Extended the area in which the sympathetic strike was legal	No restrictions
Collective Bargaining			Right to bargain collectively was granted.	Employees specifically granted right to bargain collectively	Employer must bargain in good faith with representatives of majority of employees when asked to do so.

Illustration 47. Condensed Historical Summary of Federal Labor Law

TABLES

In many of the relationship charts previously discussed, the meaning of the various horizontal and vertical positions was implied by the chart rather than stated in so many words. In the table, a definite statement is made of the meaning of each horizontal line and vertical column. The full meaning of the words or numbers in the field of the table is found by referring to the *stub* at the left of the line and the *caption* at the top of the column. The notations, or stubs, at the left of each line refer to every item on the same line, and the caption at the top of each column refers to everything in the column. Both the captions and stubs may be divided into topics and subtopics, making for additional clarity and avoiding the repetition of words, as shown in Illustration 44.

Numerical Tables

The body of numerical tables consists of columns of figures. Each figure is a measurement of both the item in the stub on the same horizontal level, and the caption at the top of the column.

When numerical information is presented to the reader in tabular form, it is much more attractive than if all the figures are included in a paragraph. Because the lines of a paragraph have only one dimension, a continuous repetition of notations is necessary, whereas in the use of two-dimensional space one designation may apply to many different figures. If a reader is not convinced of this fact, let him write out a paragraph containing all the information in Illustration 45.

Semitabular presentation is a cross between paragraph and tabular form. There may be only two columns: one for the stub and one for the information. The captions are contained in the paragraph immediately preceding the table. On the basis of ten points, the emphasis given by the following methods of comparison might be ranked:

Bar chart	10 points
Table	6 points
Semitabular	4 points
Paragraph	1 point

The above semitabular form illustrates its proper use. The comparison made is not of sufficient importance to warrant a full table or chart, but the break in paragraphs focuses attention on it.

Headline and Reference Tables

There is a definite distinction between the design of a table intended to "headline" important information and that of one intended to

compile numerical data for reference so that it may be readily found whenever it is desired. Careful attention must be given to the title, captions, and stubs of the headline table to insure proper emphasis of the most significant points, and the content of such tables should be reduced to a minimum in order to make them simple and usable. Reference tables, on the other hand, should be used to preserve all information which might possibly be valuable. Of course, neatness and readability are essential, but these tables need not be attractive in the sense that they will catch the attention of the reader who may not be seeking the information they contain. Topics in the captions and stubs should be listed in alphabetical order to facilitate ready reference.

Reference Tables to Accompany Charts

Information which has been headlined by the use of graphic charts or even very brief headline tables should always be stated in detail in a reference table, which is generally placed in the appendix of a book or article. This permits accurate statement of the ideas headlined by the chart.

Verbal Tables

Verbal tables are another application of the principles used in the construction of numerical tables. The field of numerical tables contains digits; that of the verbal table, words. In both types, verbal captions and stubs are employed. An example of a verbal table is shown in Illustration 46. This table shows the adhesive to be used for attaching two different materials. One surface may be composed of any of the materials shown in the captions of the columns, and another surface may be composed of any of the materials shown in the stubs. The adhesive for a particular caption and stub is shown in the cell.

Value of Verbal Tables

Verbal tables may be used to advantage in organizing and summarizing a written report. For example, Illustration 47 is a condensed verbal table summarizing some of the aspects of federal labor law. Various laws are shown in the captions (horizontal axis) and various topics of labor legislation are shown in the stubs (vertical axis). A cell in the field summarizes the tenor of the particular law with respect to the aspect mentioned in its stub. A discussion of labor law might be organized in chronological order, taking up all topics in one law, commencing with the Sherman Act, for example, then going on to the Clayton Act and the labor legislation of World War I, etc., using the

captions of the table as the major topics of the discussion and repeating the topics of the stubs under each major heading. An alternative organization of the report would be to take *Right to Organize*, for example, as the first major topic, and discuss each of the legislative acts as they apply to this particular aspect. *Right to Strike* would then be the next major topic, and each of the laws would have to be taken up again under this topic. There is no way of avoiding the repetition of either the laws or the topics in a written or oral presentation. In a graphic presentation, this repetition is not necessary, and the consequent economy renders the chart an effective device for summarizing the entire subject. Construction of such a chart prior to organizing the written materials is also of assistance in (a) deciding upon the basis for organizing the verbal presentation—by legislative acts or by topics in this example—and (b) checking for complete coverage—being sure that something is said about all the topics contained in each labor law in this example.

Another illustration of the use of verbal tables to facilitate the organization of speeches and papers is in the field of biography. One axis of the verbal table, the captions in this instance, is used for the chronological divisions—infancy, childhood, grade school, high school, early adulthood, etc.—in a person's life (see Illustration 48). The other

	Infancy	Childhood	Grade School	High School	Early Adulthood
Social					
Professional					
Financial					
Educational					
Religious					
Physical					

Illustration 48. Verbal Table to be Filled in to Summarize a Biography

axis, stubs in this instance, is used for the major types of activities—social, professional, financial, educational, physical, etc. The empty cells in the field of this table may then be used to summarize the aspects of their particular caption and stub. After completing the verbal table, it is then easier to decide whether to organize the biography on a chronological basis or on a topical basis. In addition, the cells provide a

check list for complete coverage in the verbal discussion of each topic or chronological period.

Verbal Tables Contrasted with other Relationship Charts

The principal distinction between the construction of a verbal table and an outline or a classification and flow chart is that the table contains captions and stubs. The meanings of the different horizontal and vertical positions are definitely stated in a verbal table, whereas they are implied on the other types of chart. Of course, it is permissible to place captions and stubs on other charts if they are needed for clarity.

CHECK CHART

The field of a check chart contains symbols instead of words or numbers. Each symbol shows the degree of relationship between the cap-

	Center College	Blackstone University	Central State College	Kingsbury Institute	
ENGLISH	6	8	5	6	
Composition	✓	✓	✓		
Literature		✓	✓		
Social Correspondence			✓		
Business Correspondence	✓			✓	
Business Reports	✓			✓	
Public Speaking		✓			
MATHEMATICS	5	6	3	8	
Business Arithmetic	✓	✓	✓		
Elements of Algebra	✓	✓		✓	
Algebra in Business	✓	✓		✓	
Trigonometry	✓			✓	
Calculus				✓	

Illustration 49. Check Chart to Summarize Courses Offered in Various Colleges

tion directly above it and the stub on the same horizontal line. One group of items, or characteristics, is listed in the stub, and another in the captions. Checks or other symbols in the field of the chart show what items in the stub are related to others in the caption, and vice versa.

An example of a check chart is shown in Illustration 49. This chart is used to summarize the business administration courses offered at several different colleges. The semester hours given by each department are shown by a numerical digit and specific courses given by each department are shown by the checks in the column for each college and opposite the topics in the stubs. A chart of this nature makes it possible to present the semester hours, specific courses, and general program of many colleges on one page without excessive loss of detail.

PROCEDURE FOR DRAWING RELATIONSHIP CHARTS

First, sketch the solution to the problem. Try to make your sketch in the approximate proportions that will be appropriate for your finished drawing. Second, make a first draft, using drawing instruments or cross-section paper. Third, criticize your first draft and incorporate the corrections in the finished drawing.

In making the first draft, draw a guideline down the center of the paper and balance the chart about this central line. The paper should be turned so that the long axis of the chart coincides with the long axis of the paper.

Draw guidelines for the standard margins to indicate the limits within which the chart should be confined. If a heavy border line is drawn, then a set of guidelines should be drawn inside the border, since the chart itself should not come into contact with the border. However, in many instances a heavy border line is superfluous, margins alone being sufficient.

Begin the chart at the top guideline. Do not be afraid to spread the chart over the whole page if necessary.

If in doubt about the size of lettering to use on the first draft, make the body of the letters one-eighth of an inch high.

On a box-type chart, the distance between the extremities of the lettering and the lines forming the box which encloses the words should not be less than the height of the body of the letters, and in many cases it will be greater. Additional points on the layout of an organization chart are shown in Figure 31.

In making tables, use either lines or space to separate the columns

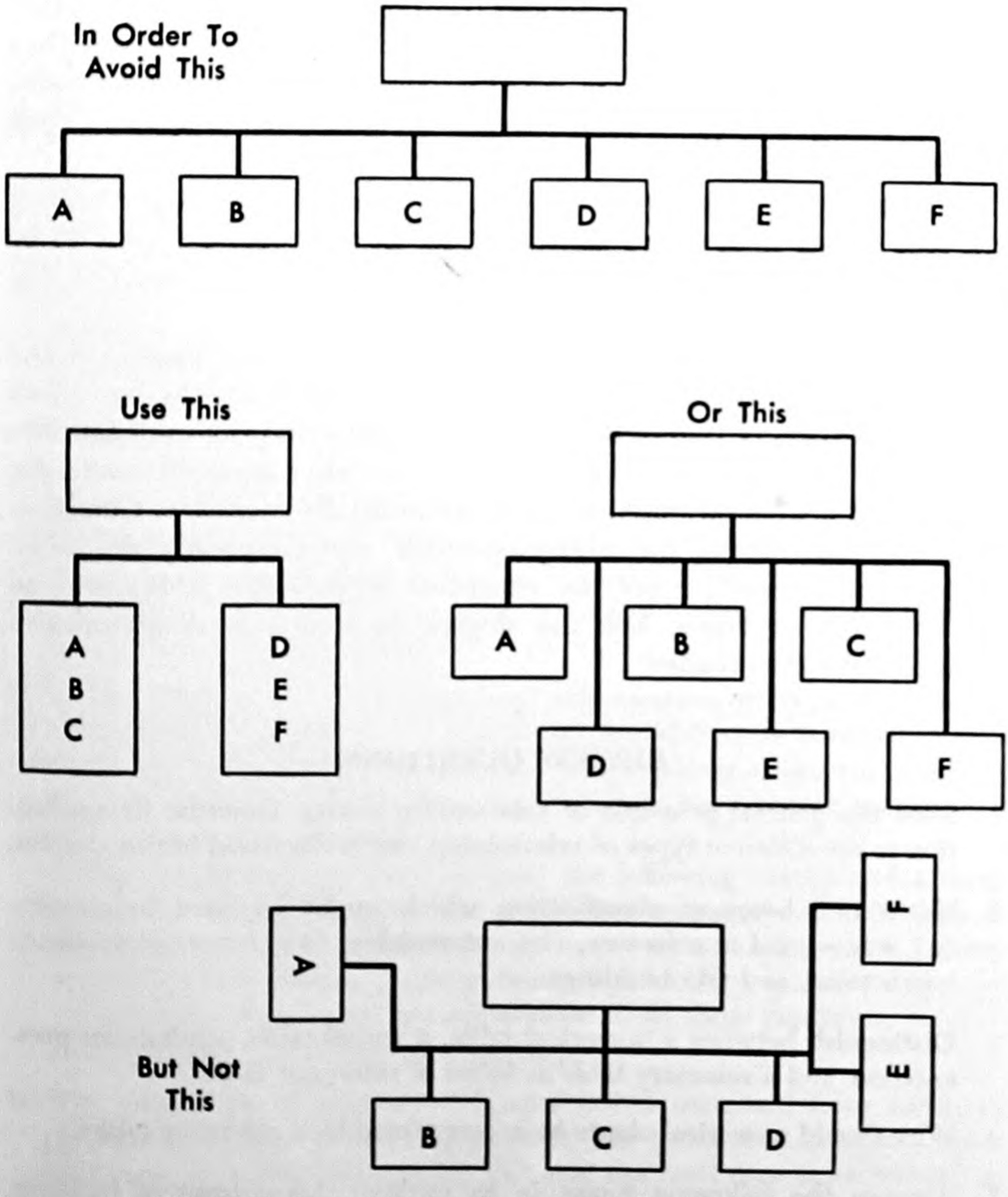


Figure 31. Suggestions for the Layout of Organization Charts

and lines in the field. Space is preferable if there is sufficient area. Black lines compete with the figures or words for attention, whereas contrasting space emphasizes them.

Boxes of equal importance should be drawn in the same size, rather than in different sizes according to the number of words which they contain. In a series of boxes of equal importance, the size of the boxes should be large enough to accommodate the item containing the largest number of words.

Lines used to connect the boxes should join them near the center of one side rather than at the corners. Lines at the corners appear to be extensions of the box itself, and make it difficult for the reader to distinguish between the box and the background.

The distinctions among the different types of the relationship charts need not be strictly maintained in practice. Many times the best chart is a combination of two or more different types, and does not fall into any one classification. In other words, the divisions are made for purposes of academic study, and are not mutually exclusive. Combinations and innovations are always possible and frequently desirable. The test of a chart is not the exactness with which it fits into an arbitrary list of types, but the degree to which it communicates information to the reader.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. State the general principle of relationship charts. Describe its application to the different types of relationship charts discussed in this chapter.

2. Name two bases of classification which might be used to classify: (a) wages paid in a factory, (b) automobiles, (c) courses of academic instructions, and (d) buildings.

3. Distinguish between a numerical table, a verbal table, semitabular presentation, and a summary table as forms of reference tables.

4. Why should numerical charts be accompanied by a reference table?

5. Arrange the following topics in an outline: Administrative building, buildings, drill presses, foremen, lathes, machine shop, office machinery, personnel, production machinery, skilled workers, supervisors, typewriters, warehouse, unskilled workers.

6. Is the following statement true or false and why: "The use of relationship charts is limited to showing the relationships between items whose characteristics may be measured in terms of pounds, dollars, or feet, etc."

7. Is the following statement true or false and why: "When items are to be classified according to one basis of classification it is not necessary, but frequently desirable, to make some form of relationship chart."

8. What is the principal difference between the organization chart type of relationship chart and the verbal table; that is, what parts are usually omitted from one and included in the other?

9. What is the reason for enclosing names in boxes when making an organization chart?

PROBLEMS

1. In the economic phenomenon termed *triangular exchange* each of three countries may import from one of them and export to another of the three, and the transaction may be settled without any actual money payments being made.

   Draw a diagram to illustrate the following example of the above statement: The United States sends machinery to England and receives an English promise to pay. The United States receives coffee from Brazil, and gives to Brazil the English promise to pay. Brazil imports woolen goods from England, and instead of shipping money to England, sends the English promise to pay which it obtained from the United States, and all the debts are canceled.

2. In the functional type of industrial organization, each foreman is responsible to the production manager and, in addition, he is responsible to specialists in such fields as personnel, safety, power, costs, etc. The production manager and the other specialists in turn report individually to a single higher executive.

   Draw a relationship chart to show the following example of a functional type of organization: The production manager and specialists in personnel and material handling all report individually to the factory superintendent; foremen in the pattern shop, foundry, machine shop, and the assembly department are responsible to all three managers, production, personnel, and material handling.

3. The population of continental United States increased from 3,929,214 persons in 1790 to 131,409,881 in 1940. The gross area in square miles increased from 829,135 to 3,026,789; and the land area from 867,980 to 2,973,776; and the water area from 24,155 to 53,013.

   Intermediate figures for the population are 9,638,453 in 1820; 31,443,321 in 1860; 75,994,575 in 1900. The gross area was 1,792,223 square miles in 1820, by 1860 it had increased to 3,026,789, but there was no change in gross area after this date. The land area was 1,753,588 square miles in 1820; 2,973,965 in 1860; 2,974,159 in 1900; and 2,973,776 in 1940. The water area was 38,636 square miles in 1820. It increased to 53,824 in 1860;

but by 1900 it had dropped to 52,630 only to come up to 53,013 square miles by 1940.

(The figures stated above are taken from *Statistical Abstracts of the United States*, 1940.)

Make a table to show the above information.

CHAPTER 15

Designs of Simple Numerical Charts

The easiest way to compare the height of two boys is to stand them up back to back and see which one is taller. If a picture is taken of them, we then have an accurate record of the comparison. Greater effort is required to measure their height in feet and inches; furthermore, the picture is much more impressive than the numerical statistics. It is not possible for the business man to make photographs of everything he wishes to compare, but comparisons which are made on business charts retain much of the directness and simplicity of the universal language of pictures.

When digits alone are used to compare sizes, they may tend to give a false impression, because the reader often is unable to visualize accurately the relationship between quantities of widely different orders of magnitude. This is one of the basic reasons why charts should be used when comparing numerical magnitudes.

BAR CHARTS

Bar charts are very closely related to pictures of actual physical comparison. If one boy has twenty-three pennies and another thirty-nine, a direct comparison could be made by placing them in two piles side by side. Place a label beside each pile and take a picture of them, and you have the essence of a bar chart.

One axis of a bar chart becomes the scale against which the length of the bars may be measured. The other axis designates the thing each bar represents—years, departments, countries, etc.—whatever is being compared.

Many variations may be used to fit the needs of individual situations, as shown in Figures 32–35. Sometimes two charts with similar axes may be combined by placing two contrasting bars opposite the same designation. Another adaptation gives a symmetrical chart with a horizontal scale beginning on either side of the central vertical axis.

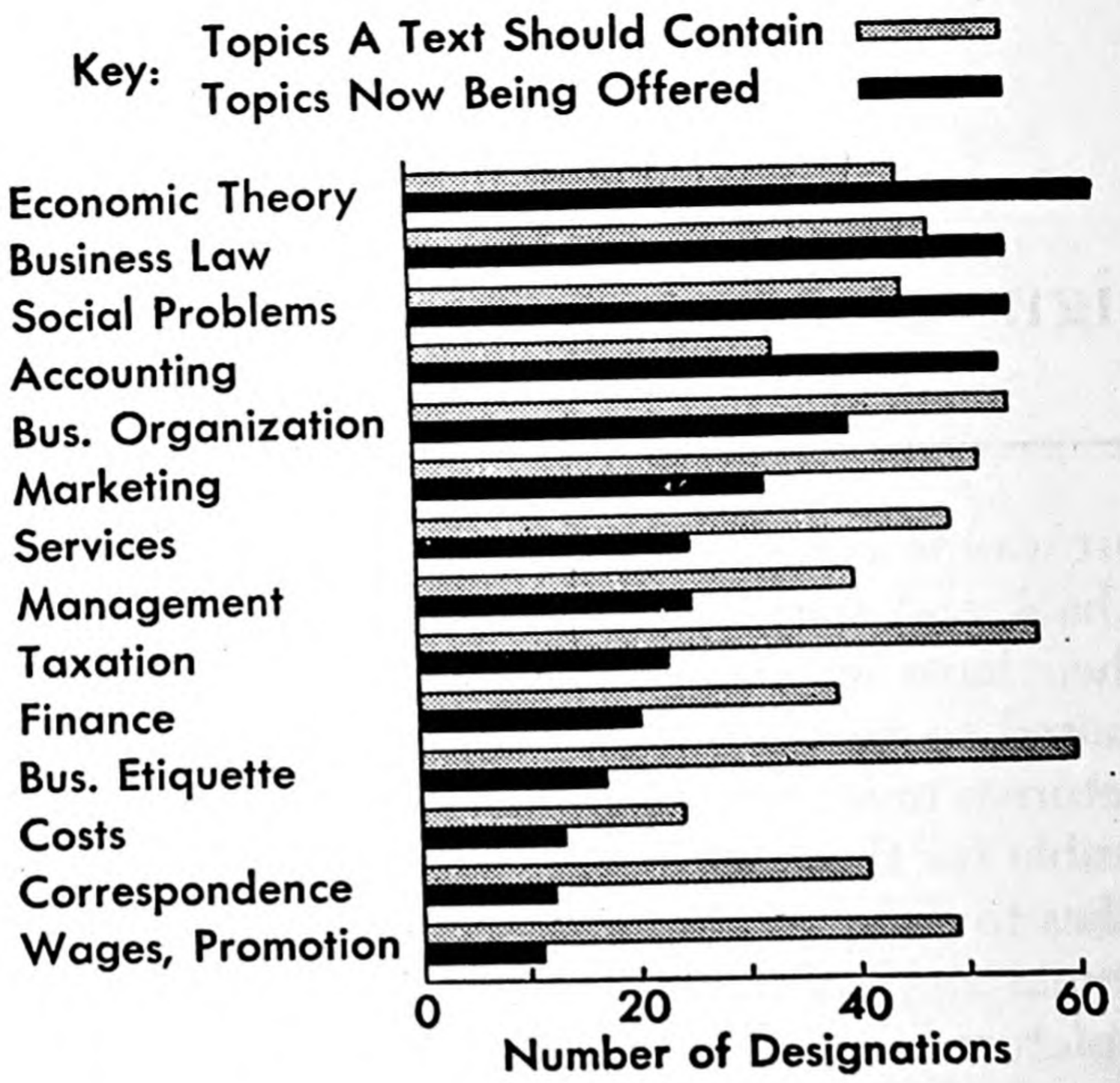


Figure 32. Bar Chart. By using contrasting bars this chart facilitates the comparison of information which could have been placed on two separate charts.

(Courtesy of the *Journal of Business Education*)

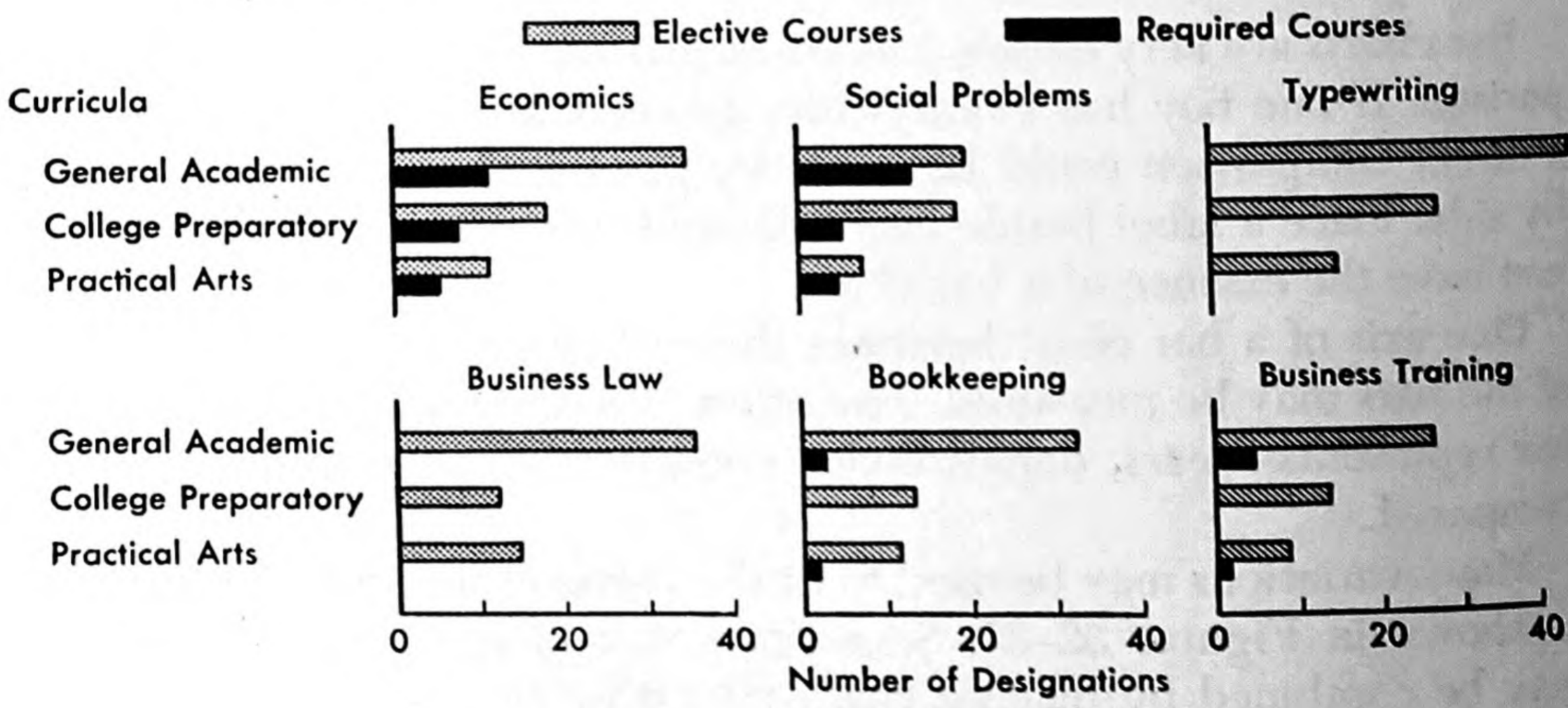


Figure 33. Compound Bar Chart

(Courtesy of the *Journal of Business Education*)

The designations on this vertical scale apply to bars on both sides which represent different possible measurements of the same item (see Figure 34).

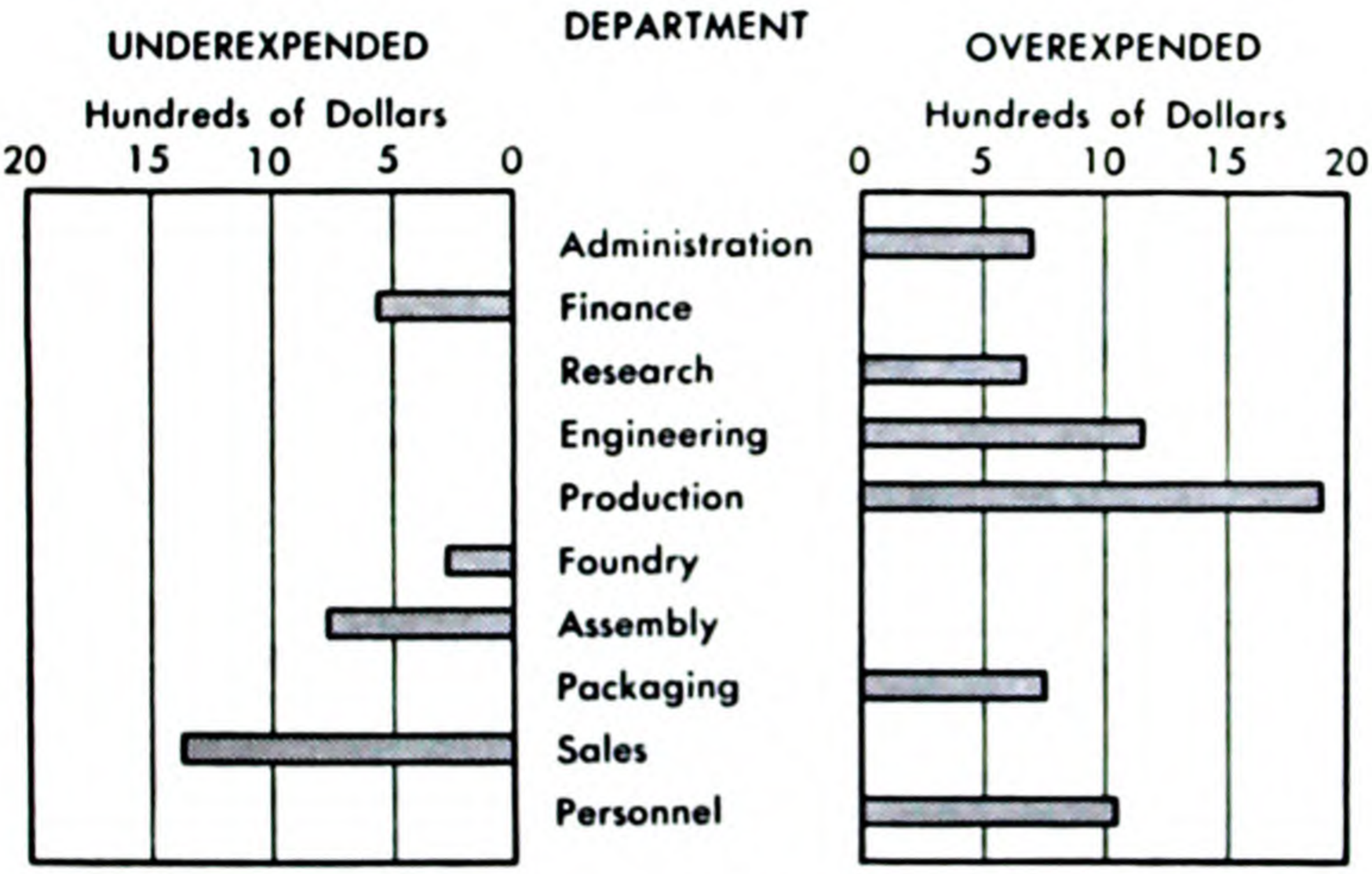


Figure 34. Bar Chart with Stubs in the Center

The individual bar on a bar chart may also be divided into component parts so that the chart becomes a series of subdivided bars (see component-part bar chart, page 316).

Pictorial Devices

The popular appeal of bar charts may be greatly enhanced by breaking the bar up into a series of symbolic pictures of whatever is being considered—men, ships, dollars, etc. The lengths of the "picture" bars indicate the relative importance of the things being shown. Since each picture represents a certain number of units, a scale and grid become unnecessary. It is important to note that an increase in number is represented by adding symbols of equal size, not by increasing the size of the symbol. However, fractions of a symbol may be employed for small quantities provided no smaller fraction than one-quarter of a symbol is used. Pictorial devices may also be used to advantage on other types of charts as well as on bar charts (see Figure 35).

Areas Undesirable for Representing Numbers

Area diagrams should *not* be used to compare magnitudes because it is very difficult to judge the relative sizes of areas. In comparing the

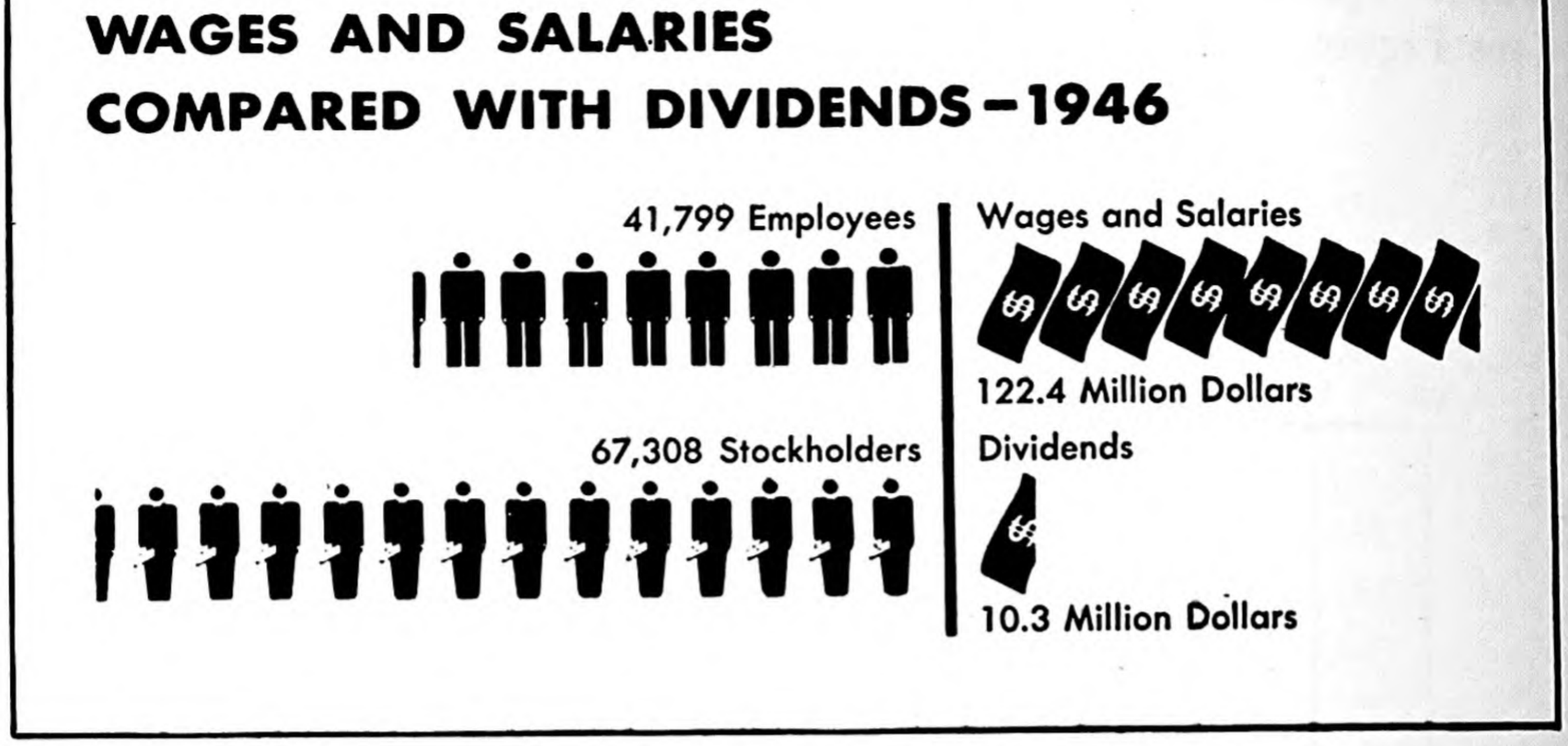


Figure 35. Pictorial Bar Chart
(Courtesy of the Pictograph Corporation)

length of lines, it is easy to see that one line is half or three-quarters as long as another, but in comparing the sizes of areas this is not so easy. If the edge of one square is twice as long as the edge of another square, the area of the larger one is four times, rather than double, the area of the smaller square.

Since the estimation of areas is difficult, areas should *not* be used for the graphic representation of numbers. For this reason, a few long bars of a bar chart should be extended in one direction not doubled up by starting another segment of the same bar at the reference line. The two segments of a doubled-up bar define the boundaries of an area, making the graphic statement complicated and confusing.

LINE CHARTS

A line chart is formed by connecting successive points of data plotted on two different axes. There is a very close relationship between the bar chart and the line chart. Connect the midpoints of the top of each bar with straight lines, then erase the bars, and the result is a line chart, as shown in Figure 36.

The line chart is more appropriate than a bar chart if the data are continuous. When a time series is to be plotted (a series which shows numerical variations of the same subject over an unbroken period of time) the line chart gives the desired impression of continuity. This is

NATIONAL INCOME

By Industrial Divisions, 1943
in billions of dollars

Manufacturing	48.6	XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX
Government	26.3	XXXXXXXXXXXXX
Trade	17.6	XXXXXXXXX
Agriculture	13.5	XXXXXXX
Service	10.4	XXXXX
Transportation	9.7	XXXXX
Finance	9.2	XXXXX
Contract Construction	4.3	XX
Power and Gas	1.7	X
Miscellaneous	4.6	XX

Source: Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1946, page 271.

Illustration 50. Bar Chart. Although bar charts prepared entirely on the typewriter are not generally employed in printed publications, they may be used to advantage in illustrating letters and internal reports.

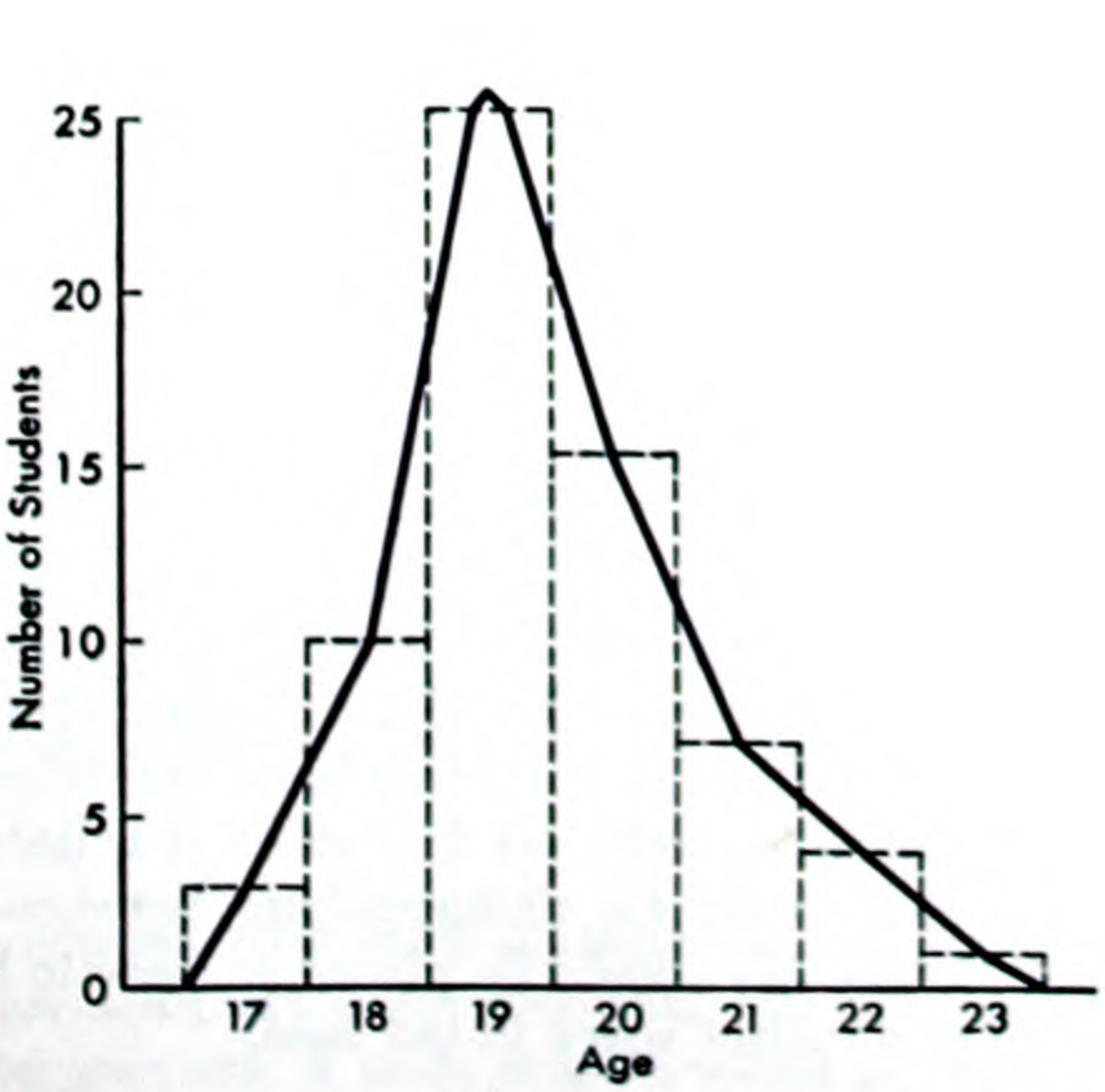


Figure 36. Line Chart of a Frequency Distribution. The dash lines indicate the close relation between a bar chart and a line chart.

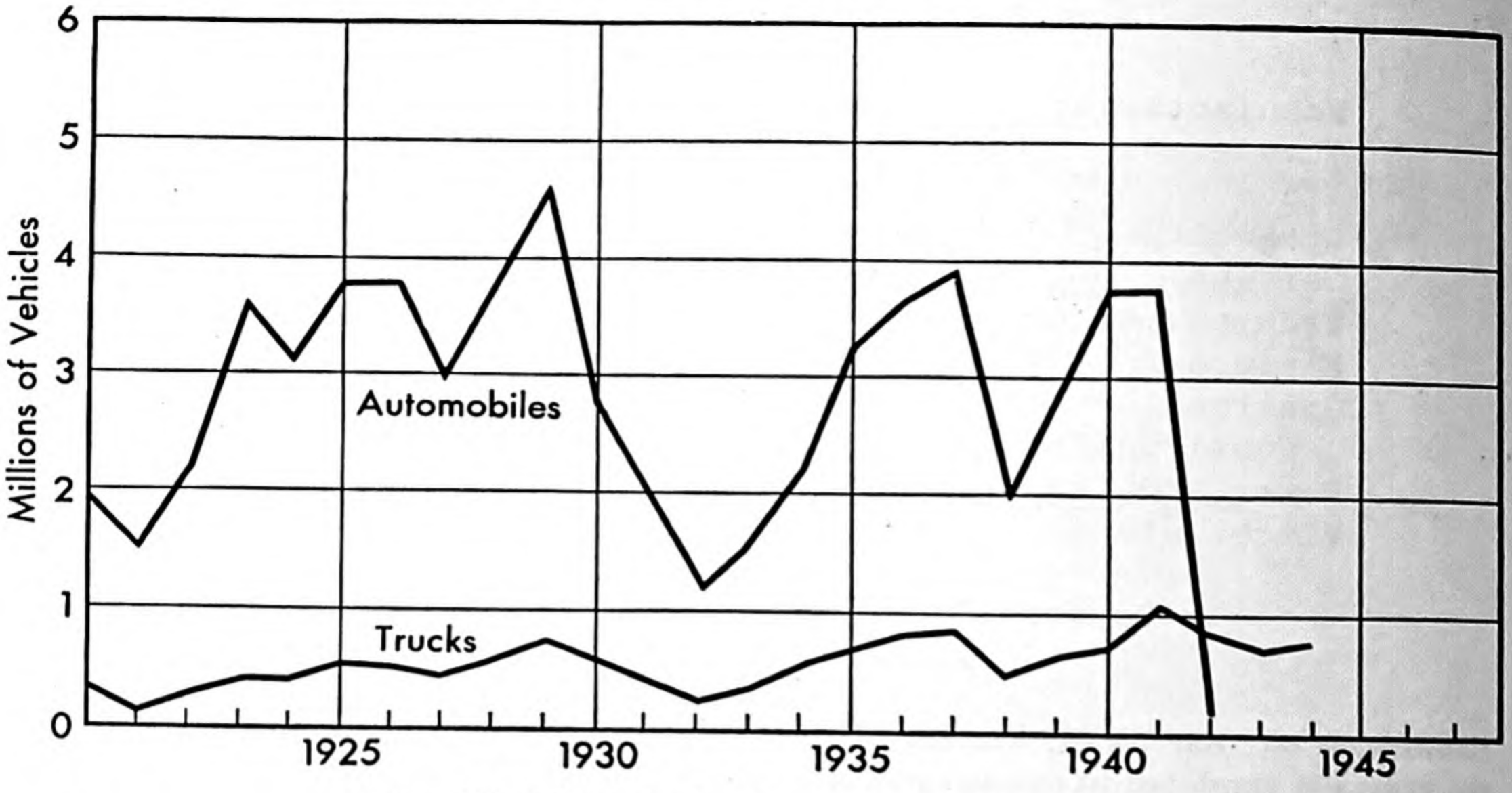


Figure 37. Time Series Shown on a Line Chart
(Source: Statistical Abstracts of United States)

also true in connection with a frequency distribution in which data are broken down into several different groups and the number in each group is plotted. Such a distribution might be of the ages of the students in a room. Taking one year as the class interval, the number of students falling into each class would be counted and plotted. The line connecting the points for each class would show how the ages in the class were distributed.

The line chart may be used to advantage in showing a number of different series on one chart. Several curves may be plotted on one chart, making it easier to compare them, and saving time and effort. If space permits, these curves should be identified by placing labels next to them. If curves intersect, they should also be distinguished by contrasting lines—full lines, dash lines, colored lines, etc. When space does not permit placing labels directly on the curves, it is necessary to use a key similar to those used for distinguishing between the bars in Figures 32 and 33. The key should be placed as close to the curves as possible, usually in a vacant space in the field.

Percentage Change or Ratio Charts

Not all time series charts are as simple as those discussed in previous paragraphs. A percentage change chart (or ratio chart) does not give a graphic portrayal of changes in magnitude. Although a percentage change chart is one type of line chart, the height of the line above the

base is *not* proportional to the size of the series. That is, if the height of the line doubles within two years on a ratio chart, this does not mean that the size of the series has doubled. On the contrary, it may mean that the size has increased 10-fold or even 100-fold. A ratio or percentage change chart cannot be read with the same simple technique generally employed in reading the simplest and most commonly used numerical charts. On a percentage change (or ratio chart), the vertical distances are proportional to the percentage change rather than the absolute amount of change. This will be explained further in Chapter 18. It is introduced at this point because of the danger of reading a ratio chart as if it were a simple numerical chart.

Ratio charts may be recognized either by logarithmic scale, ratio scale, by unevenly spaced lines or by a grid composed of unevenly spaced horizontal lines, as shown in Figure 49, page 357.

FACTORS IN CHART DESIGN

Because there are many considerations common to all charts, the following discussion is intended to be a general check list for the design and criticism of charts. Certain items will apply directly to numerical charts only, but the same principles may be thought of in connection with relationship charts also. Of course, the elements of graphic design are also equally important, and should be considered together with the points presented below.

Title

Every chart should have a title. It is not good reasoning to omit the title and explanatory notes from a chart because the chart is explained in accompanying paragraphs. Properly designed charts tell a coherent story by themselves. They are often looked at before the text is read, perhaps attracting the reader's attention so that he reads text material that would otherwise have been overlooked. Furthermore, complete charts which summarize important points facilitate a rapid review.

Scales

Scales are necessary for both construction and accurate reading of numerical charts. Before numerical data can be charted, a suitable scale must be selected. A scale is determined by finding the largest individual number to be plotted, and marking off on the chart a scale which is large enough to include this number. For example, if we wish to make a bar chart of wage rates, and the largest rate is $1.37, we could mark off a scale running from zero to $1.50 to enable us to plot every point in our data.

On most business charts it is not necessary to make more than a few scale divisions, particularly for the vertical scales. Round numbers are sufficient. A scale running from zero to 150 would go up by tens, twenties, or even thirties. A scale to show numbers ranging from $18,867,195 to $87,293,137 should be divided into 10, 20, 30, . . . 100 millions of dollars. To facilitate plotting, it may be convenient to draw a temporary scale with more subdivisions, but this scale need not appear on the final chart. Of course, where accurate readings are to be made, extensive subdivisions are necessary. Most business charts, however, are intended to give over-all pictures only; they should be accompanied by numerical tables if the receiver may also be interested in the exact figures.

The scales on a chart are very closely related to the captions and stubs on a table. Each division on a vertical scale denotes the value of everything else on the same level, in the same way that a stub applies to everything on its level. The divisions on a horizontal scale denote the value of everything above or beneath, and thereby perform a function similar to that of the caption.

On a numerical chart, the two bases of classification become, more specifically, two different measurements of a subject. Two measurements frequently used in business charts are time and size, with size measured in dollars and physical units. On other charts, only one numerical scale is necessary, since the other axis of the chart is marked with either captions or stubs, as in Figure 32.

The two bases of classification or characteristics of a subject which are shown on the two axes of a chart are also termed the *variables*. Frequently the changes in one variable cause the changes in the other, and in these instances the horizontal scale is used for the independent variable, or the one which causes the changes in the second (or dependent) variable, which is shown on the vertical scale.

Time on Horizontal Scale

If time is one of the measurements, it should always be marked on the horizontal scale. Time is an independent variable, and belongs on the horizontal scale in accordance with the rule in the above paragraph. Since this procedure is standard practice in chart making, it must be followed to avoid confusion. In the label of the horizontal scale of a time series chart, the time obviously must read from left to right, just as ordinary reading is always from left to right.

Zero Points

When a chart is used to compare sizes, the scale must begin at zero in order to give the correct visual impression. If the scale runs down to

the smallest size rather than to zero, the difference between the amounts is exaggerated, and the smaller one appears even smaller than it actually is. (Figure 38)

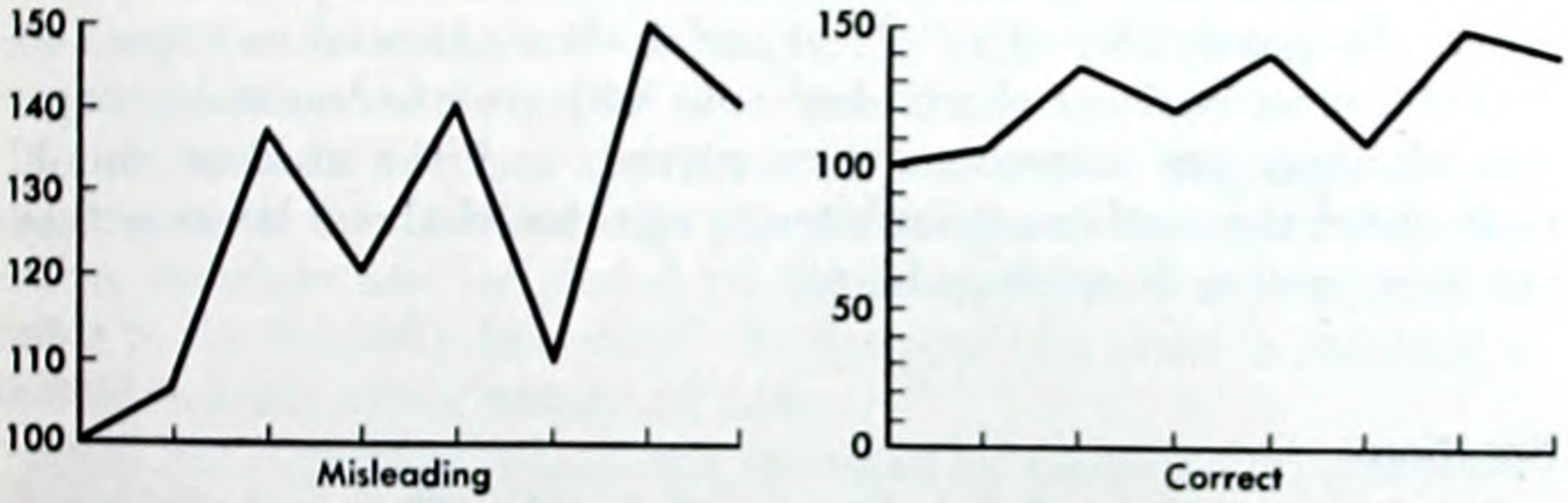


Figure 38. Need for Zero Point on the Vertical Scale of Time Series Charts in Order to Show Correct Comparisons of Size and Fluctuations

This fundamental principle in the construction of reliable charts for the comparison of size is frequently violated, and the reader should be constantly alert to avoid being misled by charts which are incorrectly drawn in this respect.

Of course, the zero point is not necessary if a chart is intended to compare the differences, rather than the sizes, of the subjects, or to compare percentage changes. Although these purposes are quite per-

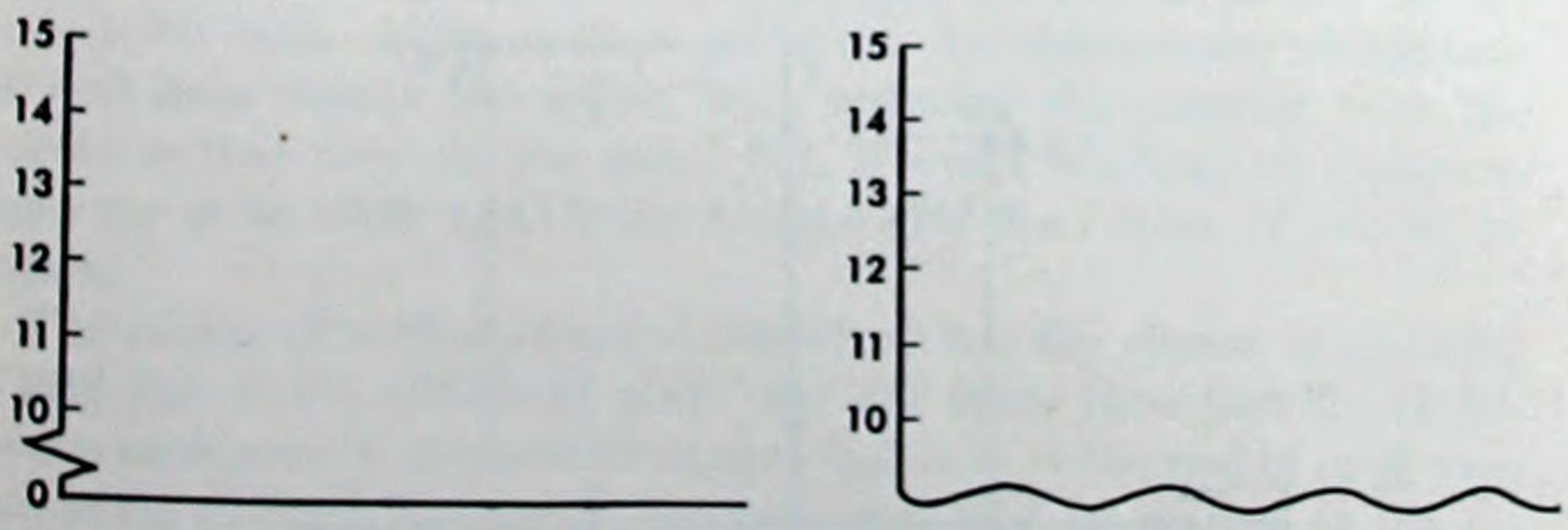


Figure 39. Methods of Focusing Attention on an Incomplete Verticle Scale if One is Used

missible and desirable, the exact purpose should be obvious even to a reader who merely glances at the chart. Two methods of showing that the zero point has been omitted are shown in Figure 39.

Coordinate Axes

In the language of the mathematician, the horizontal and vertical scales together form coordinate axes. The horizontal scale is the x-axis and the vertical scale is the y-axis. They intersect at the zero point of both, called the origin. Starting at the origin, the y-axis reads upward

for positive numbers and downward for negative numbers. On the x-axis, the positive numbers go to the right, and the negative ones to the left.

Points are referred to by giving the x value and the y value in that order. The points 3,5; −2,4; −1,−3 and 2,−3 are located on Figure 40.

While most business charts deal only with positive numbers, negative numbers are sometimes encountered, and the student should understand the mathematician's terms mentioned above because they are often used in discussing charts.

Notations

It is important that a chart be provided with sufficient notations, as well as title, so that it is self-explanatory. Notations need not be complete sentences, but a minimum of words consistent with clarity so that the chart may be read quickly. To this end, the numbers or the notations on the scales may be reduced to one or two digits by changing the unit of measurement to thousands or millions of dollars (or tons) rather than dollars (or tons). This avoids repetition of ciphers.

Minute notation of scale subdivisions is appropriate only when the chart is to be used in connection with mathematical calculations. Otherwise, a few round numbers are sufficient to indicate the trend. That

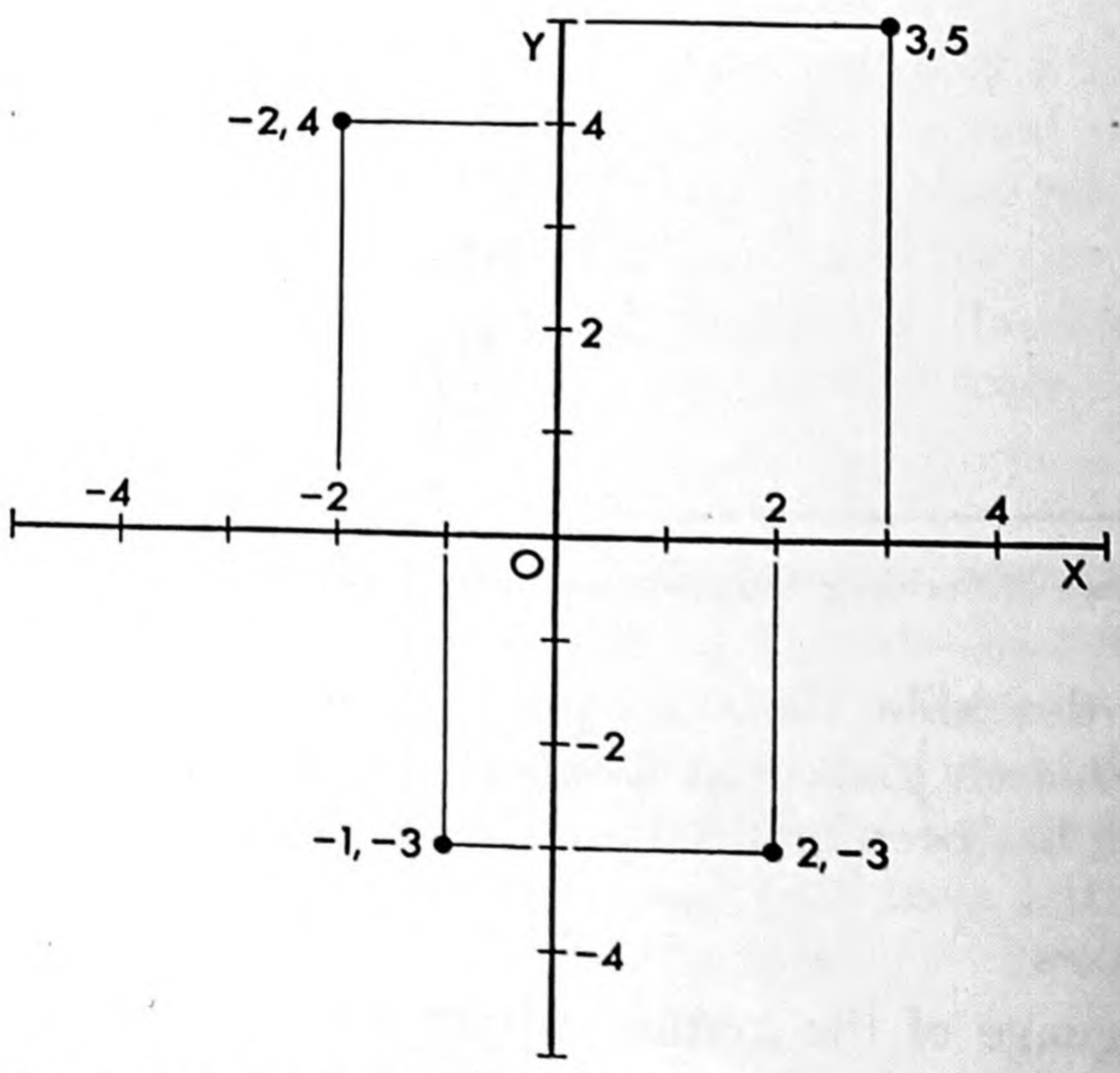


Figure 40. Coordinate Axes. Points are located in the field according to the scales on the horizontal and vertical axes.

is, the numbers on scales may run from zero to twenty-five by fives rather than by units or fractions of a unit.

The notations of the units for the horizontal scale are usually made directly beneath it. If the notation for the vertical scale is long, it can be placed parallel to the scale, facing to the right. Otherwise, it is more readable if placed at the top of the scale.

Care should be taken to see that notations—coded language—do not interfere with the universal, graphic language of the chart. For this reason, numbers are not placed on the bars of bar charts, or next to points in the field of a line chart. The purpose of a chart is defeated if its field is made into a numerical table.

Small but important details may be noted by asterisks (*) and other reference indexes, and explained in detail immediately below the chart. They are often used to call attention to the fact that a few figures of the data have been estimated or to note sources, but should not be used to explain important considerations such as units, sizes, etc., because they may be overlooked by the reader.

Grid

The grid may be thought of as the field of lines on which the chart is drawn. Like the football gridiron, its lines extend the sideline scale notations over the entire field.

As with notations, the lines on the grid should be as few as are compatible with clarity and completeness. An unnecessary abundance of grid lines shades the whole area, reducing the contrast with the curves so that they do not stand out. If exact readings or computations are to be made from a chart, more grid lines must, of course, be drawn.

The maker of a chronological line chart has the choice of drawing a grid line at the middle of each year (or other time period) or between each year. If inventories or cash balances at the end of each year are being charted, the points themselves should be plotted at the extreme right of the space representing the year. But since most yearly data are typical of the whole year, they are plotted in the middle of the space for each year. With this procedure the first and last years are represented by only half a space each, whereas each year in between has half the space on either side of its grid line. Consequently, it is theoretically better to draw grid lines between the years. Both procedures are used in practice.

A complete grid need not always be shown. Sometimes the purpose of the chart is to compare relative magnitudes or trends without reference to the exact numbers, in which case both the scale and grid

are superfluous, only the reference axes being preserved. This is particularly true when inexact trends are quickly indicated, perhaps by a rough sketch during a conversation.

Combinations and Innovations

The previous classification of charts and rules governing their design is not intended as an exhaustive treatment of the possibilities or as rigid restrictions on what can be done. Combinations and exceptions are too numerous to mention and can be observed in professional and even popular literature.

New word combinations are always being invented to improve the effectiveness of the English language, and similar innovations do the same for the graphic language. The only restriction is that the change must promote clarity and not confusion. In this respect, innovations may be perfectly clear and logical in the mind of the author, yet misinterpreted by people who do not understand the particular part of the code used, or invented, by the author.

PROBLEMS

1. State three rules which *must* be followed when making a chart of a time series and explain how miscommunication results when they are not adhered to.

2. Sketch a pair of coordinate axes and locate the following points:

Point	x-value	y-value
a	4	2
b	-2	3
c	2	-3
d	0	-4
e	-3	-4

3. What qualifications should be made to the recommendation that a chartmaker should always seek to develop new combinations and innovations?

4. Define the term *grid*.

5. What principles govern the selection of the number of grid lines and scale notations that are to be used on a chart?

6. Is the following statement true or false and why: "Because charts are an application of the graphic language of appearance, and consequently are universally understood."

7. Draw a bar chart to show the following information.

U. S. FOREIGN TRADE
WITH THE SEVEN LEADING IMPORT-EXPORT COUNTRIES
1939

	Monthly Averages in Thousands of Dollars	
	Exports	*Imports*
United Kingdom	42,281	12,427
Canada	41,101	28,361
Japan	19,271	13,435
France	15,170	5,198
Brazil	6,704	8,937
Mexico	6,933	4,674
Argentina	5,926	5,229

Source: *Survey of Current Business*

CHAPTER 16

Measures of Relative Importance

In all fields of business, decisions are based largely on numerical information. Statistics on population, prices, sales, costs, and many other factors are studied as a basis for managerial judgments. The statistics do not of themselves indicate what the conclusions should be; numerical information must be carefully analyzed before intelligent interpretations are possible. Analysis involves many comparisons made from various viewpoints. The person making the comparisons must state them clearly in order to communicate them accurately to others and in order to facilitate his own reasoning.

The principles presented in this chapter provide a background for the two following chapters. Strictly speaking, the present chapter does not deal with graphic communication, but numerical measures of relative importance are often the next best thing to a graph. Measures of relative importance are valuable in both oral and written communication, particularly if topics of a numerical nature are being discussed. Comparative cost is often a salesman's strongest selling point, and measures of relative importance are invaluable in discussing them with the prospective buyer.

How big is the lettering on the title of a book? Two different types of answer might be given: (a) one-quarter inch high, or (b) three times as large as the printing used in the text itself. The first is in a standard unit of measure, the inch in this case. The second answer is a measure of relative importance. The printing on the cover is compared with the printing on the inside pages.

ABSOLUTE UNITS

Standard or absolute units are established by definitions made by the government. They include: (a) the ordinary weights and measures, such as pounds, tons, inches, feet, yards; (b) measures used in technical fields such as electricity and mechanics; and (c) the monetary units of value—dollar and cents.

Just what size is accepted as a standard unit is not as important as that one size be universally accepted by all those using it. Confusion arises when one group of people uses the same name to represent a different size, as for example, the difference in the weight of the English and the American ton. The American ton is equal to 2,000 pounds and the English ton, 2,240 pounds. It would be simpler to have the word *ton* mean only one definite weight. For the same reason, governments maintain bureaus of weights and measures which enforce adherence to defined standard units of absolute measure within their own countries, and many units are uniform throughout the world because of international agreements.

RELATIVE UNITS

Relative units include percentages, ratios, fractions, rates, and densities. They cannot be used to measure one individual item by itself; a comparison must be made with something else. Neither are the sizes of relative units established by government definition; they depend upon the relation between the things being compared. One of these items must be taken as the *base* of the comparison, and the size of the other is stated in terms of the size of the base. When we said that the printing on the cover is three times the size of the printing in the text, the printing in the text is the base, and the number three is determined by the relation between the two different sizes of printing. The same relation might exist between the two different lines of printing of an outdoor billboard. The ratio, three to one, gives no indication of absolute size, but only expresses the size of something relative to the thing it is being compared with.

Value of Comparisons

When facts are stated by themselves, they are not as meaningful as when they are compared with other facts, particularly when the comparison is with something familiar. To say that a man is strong is not as forceful a statement as to say that he is as strong as an ox. Another illustration of this principle is a statement that a man has received $5 increase in pay. If the man was earning only $10 before the raise, the increase is particularly significant, because it means that he is now being paid half as much again as he was before. But if it is a high salaried executive who received the $5 raise, it becomes insignificant when compared with his previous salary. Thus, the meaning of a single fact is greatly modified when comparisons are made with other closely related facts.

Comparisons are an essential ingredient in all communications. They enable the speaker or writer to convey new ideas by relating them to things the audience already knows. The simile, used by salesmen as well as by poets, is a comparison stated with words. Relative units are comparisons stated with numbers rather than words, and are invaluable to business communication because comparisons are particularly important when numerical data are being considered. Figures are not interesting. Unless the reader has a special interest, he is inclined to skip them. Yet the ideas in many business communications are based upon the meaning contained in various figures. Unless the receiver understands this meaning, the communication loses its persuasiveness. In order to be sure that the full meaning of numerical figures is communicated, the writer must calculate measures of relative importance and present them in finished form. The situation is similar to that of inviting guests to a meal which is well prepared and properly served, rather than showing them to the kitchen, where they may cook their own meal—if they want to bother. Statistical data should not be eliminated from business communications, but they should be made palatable by calculation of measures of relative importance and also by verbal discussion.

Vocabulary for Comparisons

Relative units are an essential part of the business man's vocabulary. They enable him to make comparisons of relative importance much more quickly and accurately than can be done with words alone. Such a statement as, "The expenses of operating Department A are considerably greater than those of operating Department B" is replaced by a statement that expenses in Department A are 37 per cent greater than those of Department B. Used in this way, numerical digits replace words. While it is true that percentages, ratios, etc., are part of the science of mathematics, they are also a part of the language of business.

Definition of Characteristics Compared

When numerical comparisons are made, it is important to state just what characteristics have been measured. In deciding which is the larger of two manufacturing companies, one accountant might measure the invested capital, and another, the market value of the capital stock, each arriving at a different answer. The discrepancy arises because the original question did not state which characteristic should be measured in order to compare the size of the companies, so each accountant picked his own. Probably no one characteristic should be used to answer such a general question; many different characteristics should be

measured and compared, and the final answer is a matter of judgment based upon them all. Hence, the definitions of the characteristic measured in each individual comparison should be stated beside the numerical data.

RATIOS AND PERCENTAGES

A ratio or percentage states the relation between two numerical measurements that have been made with the same unit of measure. One of the items must be taken as the *base*, and the relation of the size of the second item to this base is found by dividing it by the base. For example, if we have a building which is 700 feet long and 300 feet wide, we may express the relation of the length to the width by the ratio 2 1/3 or 2.33 or 233 per cent. In this case the width is the base and the length is expressed in terms of the width. We could also take the length as the base and obtain the ratio 3/7, or 0.43 or 43 per cent, expressing the width in terms of the length. Either of these ratios makes it possible for the reader to understand the proportions of the building.

In such an expression as *the percentage that the width is of the length*, it is easy to identify the base because it follows the word *of*.

Importance of Understanding What the Base is

In using ratios and percentages, care must be taken to be sure that it is clearly understood just which item is the base. An example is the distinction between mark-up and margin. Mark-up expresses the difference between cost and selling price—gross profit—as a percentage of cost. If the cost is $4 and the selling price $6, then the gross profit is $2, and mark-up, 50 per cent, is found by dividing the gross profit by the cost, or base. Margin, on the other hand, expresses the same difference between cost and selling price as a percentage of selling price. Using the same figures, the margin, 33 1/3 per cent, is found by dividing the gross profit, $2, by the selling price, $6. Given the figure for cost and the percentage mark-up, we can calculate the gross profit on an article; or, given the selling price and percentage margin, we can also calculate the gross profit on the same article. The answer, gross profit, will be the same in both instances, but the percentages will be different because they are derived from different bases. Cost is the base of mark-up, and selling price the base of margin.

Difference between Ratios and Percentages

The difference between a ratio and a percentage is in the position of the decimal point. Both are obtained by dividing one item by a sec-

ond item which becomes the base. The quotient is a ratio and may be expressed as a fraction or a decimal, or occasionally a whole number. The ratio is changed to a percentage by multiplying it by 100—moving the decimal point two places to the right. The significant figures in the decimal ratio and the percentage will be the same, but the decimal point will be two more places to the right in the percentage.

The size of the base becomes unity (one) in a ratio, and the value of the ratio is less or greater than one according to whether the thing compared with the base is smaller or larger. In a percentage the size of the base is one hundred (100) and the percentage is smaller or greater than 100 according to whether the item compared with the base is smaller or greater.

Percentages have wide popular acceptance because it is easy to visualize a standard containing one hundred units, and to think of other things in terms of this standard. In other words, whatever is taken as the base becomes 100 per cent, regardless of its absolute size, and other things are measured in terms of a scale which is the size of the base and contains 100 units, called per cents. For example, if the pay of an operator's helper is 75 per cent of that received by the machine operator himself, this means that the helper receives $75 for every $100 the operator receives. We might express the same relation by saying that the helper receives $27 for every $36 that the operator receives, but the comparison with the base of 100 units is easier to visualize and has been adopted as a standard.

When percentages are used in calculations, they are changed back to ratios by moving the decimal point back two places to the left. For example, if the machine operator above receives $45, the pay of the helper is found by multiplying 45 by 0.75, not 75.

The choice between a ratio and a percentage is a matter of custom and preference rather than of technical advantages, but it is very important that the decimal point be in the correct position and that the per cent sign be used when required.

Applications of Ratios and Percentages

Ratios and percentages are used to state several different types of simple numerical comparisons, and then these comparisons, or relationships, may be compared with other similar percentage relationships. These applications are discussed in further detail below.

Simple Numerical Relationships

Ratios and percentages are frequently used in connection with simple numerical relationships.

1. *Relation between two characteristics of the same subjects* The proportion between the length and width of a building calculated in a previous paragraph is one example of this relationship. The operating ratio calculated from accounting statements (operating expenses divided by operating income) is another. Both characteristics of the subject must be stated in the same units of measure, and the one taken as the base is divided into the other one.

2. *Relation between similar characteristics of different subjects* Relations between the lengths of two buildings may be expressed as a ratio by dividing the length of one by the length of the other, which becomes the base. In the same way, the capital stock, or any other item on an accounting statement, may be compared with the same item on the statement by another company.

3. *Relation of parts to a whole* A profit and loss statement is frequently analyzed by calculating the percentage that each expense is of the total expenses. Total expenses is the denominator for finding the percentage that each of the other expenses is of the total. The following example shows the calculation of the percentage that each type of cost is to the total cost of the product.

ITEM	DOLLARS	CALCULATION OF PER CENTS	PER CENT OF TOTAL
Materials	9	$\frac{9}{16} \times 100$	56
Labor	3	$\frac{3}{16} \times 100$	19
Overhead	4	$\frac{4}{16} \times 100$	25
	16		100

If the calculations are correct, the sum of the per cents of total will be 100 per cent. Another illustration is the batting average of baseball players. The number of times a man has been at bat is taken as the base and divided into the number of base hits he registered.

4. *Percentage Changes* Percentages are frequently used to show the relative importance of changes which take place. *The amount of the change*—either increase or decrease—*is compared with the size of the subject before the change*. For example, a man whose salary was $50 a week receives a $10 raise, the percentage increase is found by dividing the $10 by the $50, giving an increase of 20 per cent. The steps in the calculation are: (1) find the difference in absolute units between the original size and the new size; (2) divide this difference by the original size or base; (3) multiply the resulting ratio by 100 if it is desired to change it into a percentage. The nature of the change, whether

it is an increase or decrease, should be stated in words or by a plus sign for an increase, and a minus sign for a decrease.

It is important to note that a percentage change is not the same thing as the per cent that a new size is of an old size. Referring to the above example of 20 per cent salary increase, the new salary is 120 per cent of the old one. This percentage expresses the relation between the new size and the old, and is perfectly correct, but is not used as extensively as the percentage change. The percentage change is the difference between this and 100. This introduces an alternative method of calculating percentages changes, and the detailed steps are as follows: (1) divide the new size by the original size; (2) multiply the ratio by 100 to change it to a percentage; (3) find the difference between the product and 100.

Comparison of Relationships

All of the above applications involve the comparison of two numerical measurements which have been stated in standard units—dollars, pounds, or feet, etc. Both the numerator and denominator of the calculation must be in the same units. As presented above, the purpose of calculating a ratio is to make the comparison which the ratio expresses. For example, the calculating of the ratio of width to length of a building made it easier to understand the proportions of the building. The length and width were compared in order to understand and communicate an idea of the proportions of the building. In the above discussion the proportion was not expressed as a ratio for the express purpose of comparing it with the proportions of other buildings. However, to establish a common unit, this comparison is frequently made, as explained below.

Ratios and percentages are particularly valuable because they give us a common unit of measure with which to compare one relation with another. For example, the proportion (or relation) between length and width of a building can be expressed, and then compared with the same proportion of another building, and then the percentages may be compared. Batting averages are another common example. The number of base hits a man has made does not tell us how good a batter he is; we also need to know the number of times he has been at bat, but even with this information it is difficult to compare the relative success of each batter, as is shown by the following table:

	AT BAT	BASE HITS
Jones	126	37
Smith	85	25
Brown	136	41

The next step is to find the relation between the hits by each batter to the times at bat, and then note the differences in these ratios. The calculations and ratios are shown in the following table.

Jones	$\frac{37}{126} = 0.295$
Smith	$\frac{25}{85} = 0.298$
Brown	$\frac{41}{136} = 0.308$

It is important to note that in the above examples *each calculated ratio is actually a new characteristic of its own subject, and that this characteristic*—proportions of the building or success of the batter—*could not be measured in absolute units, but required relative units.* Referring back to the previous section, we find that the calculation of ratios to express (a) the relation between two characteristics of the same subject, (b) the relation between parts of a total, and (c) percentage changes, gives us a characteristic of one subject which may be compared with the same characteristic of another subject.

In the comparison of ratios (and percentages) particular care must be taken to see that the complete definitions of each ratio compared are similar. If one company includes depreciation as an operating expense and another company does not, the operating ratios of the two companies are not comparable. Even though the names of the ratios are the same, it is necessary to look further to see what has been used as the complete definition of the names of the ratios. In the comparison of percentages that different parts are of a whole, the denomination of each percentage will be exactly the same, but in other cases it is the definitions of the numerator and denominator which are the same, not their numerical values.

The definitions of the time period in which changes take place must be similar when percentage changes are compared. There also should be some kind of cause and effect relationship between the things whose changes are compared. Labor costs and volume of production are, by definition, entirely different elements, but in the operation of a factory they are closely related, and percentage changes which occur during the same period are valuable comparisons for management to make.

Some changes occur at one definite time, rather than over an extended period of time. Salary changes, for example, become fully effective at once, and then the salaries remain constant until another change is made. With this type of change, of course, careful examination of time periods is not necessary.

The above cautions on the comparisons of percentages and ratios

are not intended to be rigid restrictions which would outlaw many valuable comparisons because of unimportant technical differences in definitions. The principal point is that persons using percentages should understand what is behind them before making decisions based upon them.

Index Numbers

A discussion of many statistical aspects of index numbers is far beyond the scope of this text, but the fundamental principle of expressing a time series in terms of index numbers is another device for obtaining a measure of relative importance and it is closely related to the calculation of percentages. With index numbers all concept of size itself is completely eliminated and attention is directed to changes in size.

The procedure for calculating index numbers is the same as that of calculating several percentages which all have the same base. The numerical value of all the denominators in the series is always exactly the same—the size of the subject during the base year or other period. The numerator in each calculation is the size of the subject during the period the calculation represents. The decimal point is always moved two places to the right, as it is in percentages, but a percentage sign is *not* added. If index numbers are presented in tabular form, the caption may read "Index of (subject), base 1926," or "1926 = 100." For example, the following table shows the calculation of index numbers using 1926 as a base.

YEAR	PIG IRON PRODUCTION IN U.S. (In thousands of tons)	CALCULATIONS	INDEX NUMBERS 1926 = 100
1925	36,408	$\frac{36,408}{39,072}$	93
1926	39,072	$\frac{39,072}{39,072}$	100
1927	36,228	$\frac{36,288}{39,072}$	93
1928	37,836	$\frac{37,836}{39,072}$	97
1929	42,288	$\frac{42,288}{39,072}$	108
1930	31,404	$\frac{31,404}{39,072}$	80

In business, index numbers always refer to changes taking place in defined periods of time, whereas the many applications of percentages may or may not involve time as one of the considerations. Percentage

changes, of course, do involve time, but they are not index numbers. *Differences between successive index numbers should not be interpreted as percentage changes.* Index numbers state the relation between the sizes at different times and the size during the base year; percentage changes, the relation between two successive sizes. The difference between two successive index numbers is usually not the same as the percentage change, although it is often considered to be. The following table illustrates this fact.

	INDEX NUMBERS, 1936 = 100		DIFFERENCE	PERCENTAGE CHANGE
	1947	*1948*		
Series A	150	160	10	6.7
Series B	71	79	8	11.3

Note that the difference between the index numbers is greater in Series A, but that the percentage change is larger in Series B. The percentage change will be the same as the difference between index numbers only when the first index number is 100.

Index numbers are frequently employed to compare (a) the *relation* between successive sizes of one series with (b) the *relation* between successive sizes of another series. This comparison is particularly valuable if the average sizes of the series are not the same, or if the two (or more) series are expressed in different absolute units. Such a comparison is similar to taking a picture of each series and enlarging or reducing the pictures until they are the same size at the year that has been se-

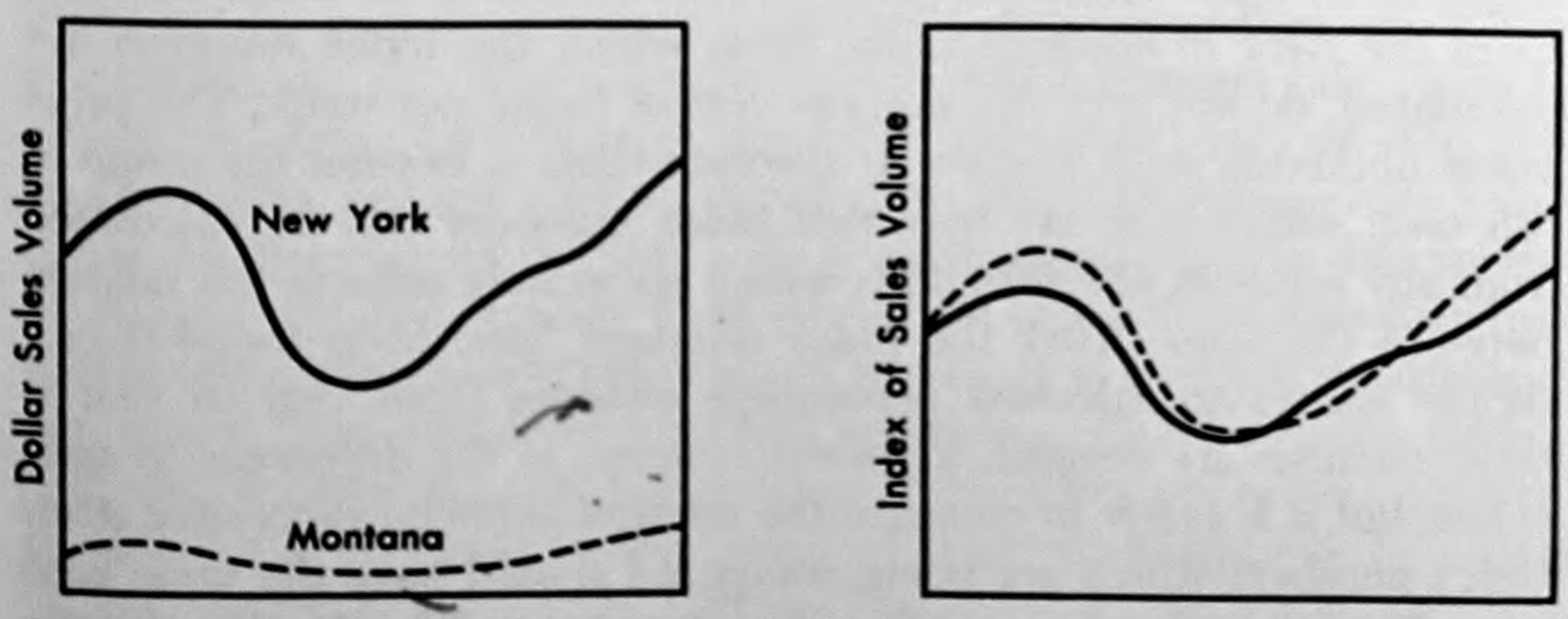


Figure 41. Graphic Effect of Calculating and Comparing the Index Numbers of Two Series That Differ in Size. The series are enlarged or reduced so that they both have the same height during the base year.

lected for the base. Then the concept of the difference in absolute size is entirely lost, but it is easy to compare the relation between successive sizes as shown in Figure 41. Two or more index numbers which are being compared in this way should always have the same base year. The

base of a series of index numbers may be changed by dividing all the numbers in the series by the index number of the new base year. This calculation is shown in the following table.

	INDEX NUMBERS BASE *1935*	CALCULATIONS	INDEX NUMBERS BASE *1946*
1945	145	$\frac{145}{140} \times 100$	104
1946	140	$\frac{140}{140} \times 100$	100
1947	120	$\frac{120}{140} \times 100$	86
1948	150	$\frac{150}{140} \times 100$	107

Index numbers are a tool which has been devised for the purpose of comparing things that are difficult to observe and compare. While index numbers may be used for comparisons that are easy to observe, such as the number of people employed in a single factory, they are particularly useful when dealing with more complex subjects—purchasing power, price level, etc.—which are difficult to define, and even more difficult to measure with any degree of accuracy. Because these elusive things exist and exert a very real influence upon business, they must be stated as accurately as possible. The business man is not concerned with actual sizes by themselves so much as with the changes and relations between them. Hence index numbers serve his purpose.

For example, a statistician would not define the cost of living in terms of so many dollars a week, but in terms of an index number. Even the data in absolute units, from which the index numbers are calculated, do not give the average cost of living per week. The process of obtaining such a series in absolute units is beyond the scope of this text; suffice it to say here that index numbers may be calculated from any series in absolute units which accurately reflects the relation between the sizes. After the index numbers have been found it is a simple matter to calculate percentage changes from year to year if these changes are desired. Then the concept of the *difference* in sizes is lost, but it is easier to compare the *relation* between *successive sizes.* Index numbers which are being compared should have the same base year. The base of index numbers may be changed by dividing by the index number of the period which is to be the new base.

Densities and Rates

Rates and densities express the relation between things that are entirely different. Unlike percentages, the units of measure in the numerator and denominator are *not* the same. For example, to find the density

of population for a state, we divide the population by the area in square miles—using people in the numerator and square miles in the denominator. Both units are always stated in the answer—so many people per square mile. The base of the comparison, or divisor, always follows the word *per*. It is just as important to understand what has been taken as the base of a density as it is of a percentage. Square miles per person does not mean the same thing as persons per square mile.

There is no technical difference between a rate and a density, but there is a difference established by custom. The base of a density is a unit of volume or area; the base of a rate is some other measure such as time or weight. Typical examples are population per square mile, pounds per cubic foot, dollars per pound, and miles per hour. A percentage change, such as a sales increase of 15 per cent in the month of May, is really a rate—percentage change *per* month.

Although densities and rates are in themselves comparisons of relative importance, they may be treated as original units and enter into further calculations of other measures of relative importance. We often find the percentage change in the price of an article, i.e., the rate at which the rate of dollars per unit is changing.

The previous discussion of the comparison of ratios and percentages also applies to rates and densities.

Rates of Change

One of the most valuable applications of percentage is in the calculation of rates of change. As already explained, the original size, divided by the amount of change, expressed as a percentage, gives the percentage change. Whenever the time in which changes take place is important, percentage changes should be expressed as a rate—ten per cent per year, five per cent per month, etc. Rates of change may have either relative units or absolute units in their numerator; the denominator is always a unit of time. Care should be taken to be sure that the reader will understand whether a rate of change is a certain percentage per unit of time—eight per cent per year—or a certain amount (size) per unit of time—ten feet per second, five dollars per week, seventy pounds per hour, etc. A further study of rates of change will be made in the chapter on Percentage Change Charts.

Statement of Both Absolute and Relative Units

When stating measures of relative importance, the absolute figures should also be given. In addition to saying that a man received a ten per cent raise in salary, we should clarify the situation by telling whether this amounted to $5 or $200. Both absolute and relative meas-

ures should be presented. There are two reasons for this requirement.

(1) The relative unit itself gives no indication of size. Unless the reader is familiar with the size of one of the factors in a relative measure, he knows the relation between two sizes without having any idea what the sizes themselves are. For instance, an operating ratio by itself gives no indication whether the operating expenses were in hundreds of dollars or millions; consequently, there is no indication of the size of the operating expenses. Usually the reader will be interested in both sizes and the relations between them, so both the absolute and relative units should be stated.

(2) When he has the original data before him, the reader may make any additional comparisons he wishes. That is, his analysis is not limited to the percentages or densities that have already been calculated, but he may also compute other additional measures of relative importance.

SIGNIFICANT FIGURES

In calculating measures of relative importance to be used in business communications, as well as in preparing data in absolute units, the question arises as to whether numbers may be rounded off to one or two figures or carried out to several decimal places. This question is best answered in terms of significant figures, and the rules which govern the use of significant figures should be followed.

If we were to write a headline stating that a fire loss amounted to $5,000, we would probably write it as *5 thousand dollars*. This statement would not mean the loss was exactly $5,000, but about that—probably between $4,500 and $5,500. In the statement only one significant figure was used, 5. If the estimate were more carefully made, two significant figures would be necessary to express it; such an estimate might amount to 5.4 thousand dollars. As we continue to measure the value more accurately, additional significant figures are required. If we say the loss was $5,452.27, we imply that the value has been very carefully measured down to the last cent. All figures are significant because they have been determined by an actual measurement of the value.

The original statement could have been written $5,000 instead of *5 thousand dollars*. The zeros following the 5 are not significant figures because their function is merely to place the decimal point, and they were not necessary when we wrote out *thousand dollars*. When we changed our units from thousands of dollars to dollars, zeros after the 5 became necessary in order to locate the decimal point, but they are not significant figures.

A figure or digit is significant when it is required for the statement of a magnitude to the precision desired, rather than merely to place the decimal point in the statement of the magnitude. The accuracy of many measurements and estimates requires only a few significant figures. For example, we might say that a building is about 1,200 feet long. Here we are using only two significant figures. If our unit had been thousands of feet, the measurement would have been 1.2 thousands of feet, the zeros being omitted because it is no longer necessary to locate the decimal point.

Zero may be a significant figure if it is the result of careful measurement. To illustrate, if a building is measured and found to be 1,020 feet long, the middle zero is significant because by actual measurement it was found to be zero and not some other figure. If an actual measurement falls at a zero point on the measuring scale, then this zero is significant, but if the zero must be added to the number only to locate the decimal point, the zero is not significant.

The number of significant figures that should be used in making measurements and stating numbers is a matter of judgment. Each figure is always more important than the ones that come after it. The second significant figure is always more important than the third, the third than the fourth, and so on. This fact is brought out by the effect of the figures on the height of a bar when making a bar chart. For example, in making a bar to represent $251,932, a mistake of one unit in plotting the first figure would make a considerable difference in the length of the bar, a similar mistake in the second figure would be of less consequence, and the last few figures have no effect at all on the height of the bar.

While successive figures are of decreasing importance, the difficulty of obtaining them increases. For example, it is very easy to estimate that there are two thousand people in a hall. More care is required to make the more accurate statement that there are about 2,300—two significant figures—and a careful count is necessary in order to say that there are 2,318—four significant figures. The difficulty of obtaining successive significant figures increases at the same time that the relative importance of these figures decreases.

The number of significant figures to be used depends upon the accuracy required. In doing accounting work, all numbers should be carried out to the last cent in order that accounts may be balanced accurately. In making machine parts such as pistons and cylinder heads, the measurements must be very accurate so that the parts will fit together tightly yet not bind.

There are many cases in business communications where two or three

significant figures are entirely adequate. If any more were used, the receiver would not remember them, and the simple statement of only two or three figures makes the communication more attractive. For example, an accounting statement must quote cost of sales as $21,287,-358.26, but in a general discussion it is much better for the plant manager to refer to them as about 21 million dollars—two significant figures rather than ten.

As a general rule, the number of significant figures in a business communication should be as few as commensurate with the accuracy required. In dealing with large numbers, it is desirable to change the size of the units to hundreds, millions, or billions, and, of course, this change in the units also changes the position of the decimal point so that it is not necessary to count the ciphers in order to comprehend the size of the number. 5 million is easier to read than 5,000,000.

Two, or sometimes three, significant figures are usually sufficient for stating ratios and percentages. Additional figures are of little interest and make the comparison appear complicated and unattractive.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Define relative and absolute units.
2. Explain why the concepts presented in this chapter are essential to the preparation of acceptable reports and letters in such fields as economics, finance, management, salesmanship.
3. Explain the relation between a simile, a metaphor, and a percentage.
4. List four types of simple numerical relationships that may be expressed by ratios and percentages, and give an example of each.
5. From the standpoint of communication, what is the value of calculating measures of relative importance?
6. Explain the importance of understanding just which item is the base of a ratio or percentage, using mark-up and margin as an illustration. Assume a numerical example.
7. What general caution should be exercised in drawing conclusions based upon the comparison of percentages?
8. Explain what is meant by the statement that the calculation of several percentages which may be compared with one another is a more valuable application than merely calculating isolated percentages.
9. Explain why the difference between two index numbers may not be the same as the percentage change. Assume a numerical example.

10. What is the difference between a ratio and a percentage? What conditions govern the choice between the two?

11. Define *rates* and *densities* and contrast them with *ratios* and *percentages*.

12. Define the term *significant figure*.

13. Designate each digit in the following numbers as either significant, not significant, or doubtful: (a) 371, (b) 5,000,000, (c) 6,079, (d) 0.018, (e) 0.01080.

14. What considerations govern the number of significant figures which should be included in a business communication?

PROBLEMS

	1944	*1945*	*1946*
Product A	4	4	6
Product B	5	8	7
Product C	11	7	9

1. Calculate the per cent that the sales of each product in 1944 were of the total sales for that year.

2. Calculate the percentage change in the sales of each product between 1944 and 1945.

3. Calculate index numbers for each product and for the total with 1944 as a base.

4. Using the data in Illustration 45 calculate the percentage that each item is of the total in the year 1945.

5. Using the data in Illustration 45 calculate the percentage change in each expenditure and in the total between 1944 and 1945. Indicate whether the changes are increases or decreases.

6. From the standpoint of communication, what is the value of calculating the above percentages?

7. The receipts from documentary stamps in 1944 were 128 per cent of the same receipts in 1940, i.e., there was an increase of 28 per cent. May this figure be compared with the percentage change for the same item found in question 5?

CHAPTER 17

Component-Part Charts

The "pie" chart is one of the simplest and most frequently used graphic devices. Its largest application is in newspapers, magazines, and similar publications which are read by the general public rather than by professional business men or technicians. A general reader will not be impressed by detailed statistics on the fiscal condition of the nation, but he does understand a "pie," representing all the money he earns, with one-quarter of it eaten up by taxes. (See Figure 42.) This relationship could also be shown by a component-part bar chart rather than a pie chart, perhaps giving the bar the appearance of a candy bar, and showing one-quarter of it removed.

Component-part charts show the relative importance of the various divisions which make up a whole or total. These charts facilitate the comparison of the size of any one part with other parts or with the total of all. For example, Illustration 51 in the text shows the relative amounts in each of the types of expenditures which together make up the gross national expenditure. Any one part, such as consumer goods, may be compared with another portion, such as consumer services, or with the total. Two types which are next to each other may be taken as a single unit and compared with other types or with the total. The illustrations show that consumer goods and services together make up more than half of the expenditures.

FORMATION OF SIGNIFICANT SUBGROUPS

Particular attention should be given to the order in which items are named on a list, table, or component-part chart. The sequence may be based upon order of importance, size, authority, close relationship of the items, etc. If the items are listed at random without following any basis of classification, the receiver may attach more significance to the first items on the list, thereby reading into the list a meaning which was not intended. When impartial treatment is desired, the listing should be in alphabetical order.

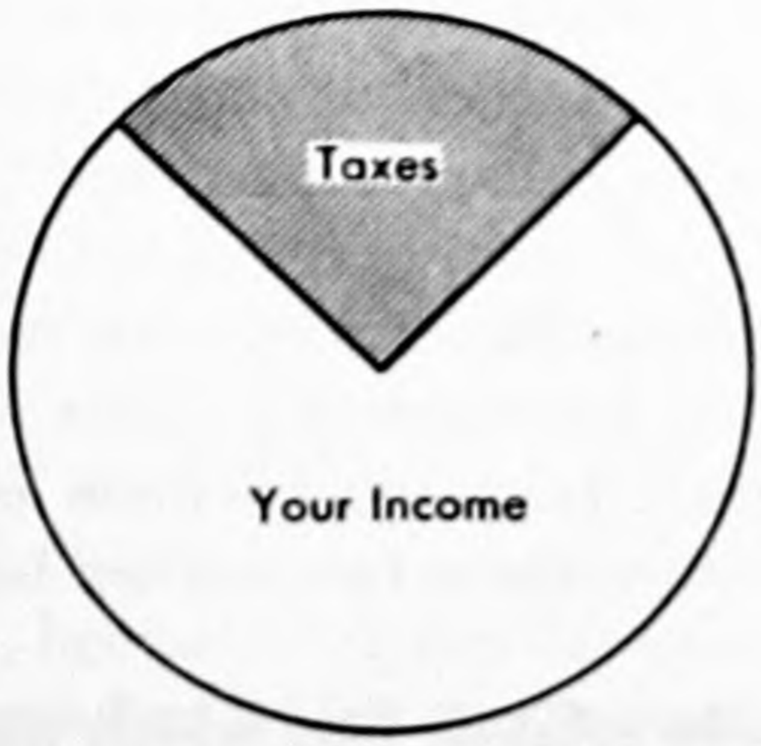


Figure 42. "Pie" Chart or Circular Component-part Chart

GROSS NATIONAL EXPENDITURE, 1945

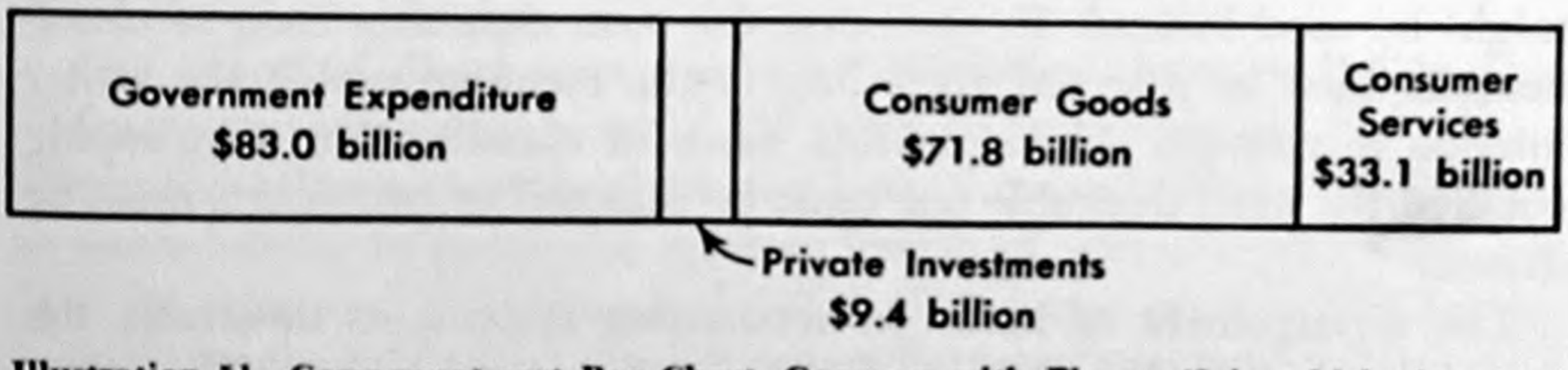
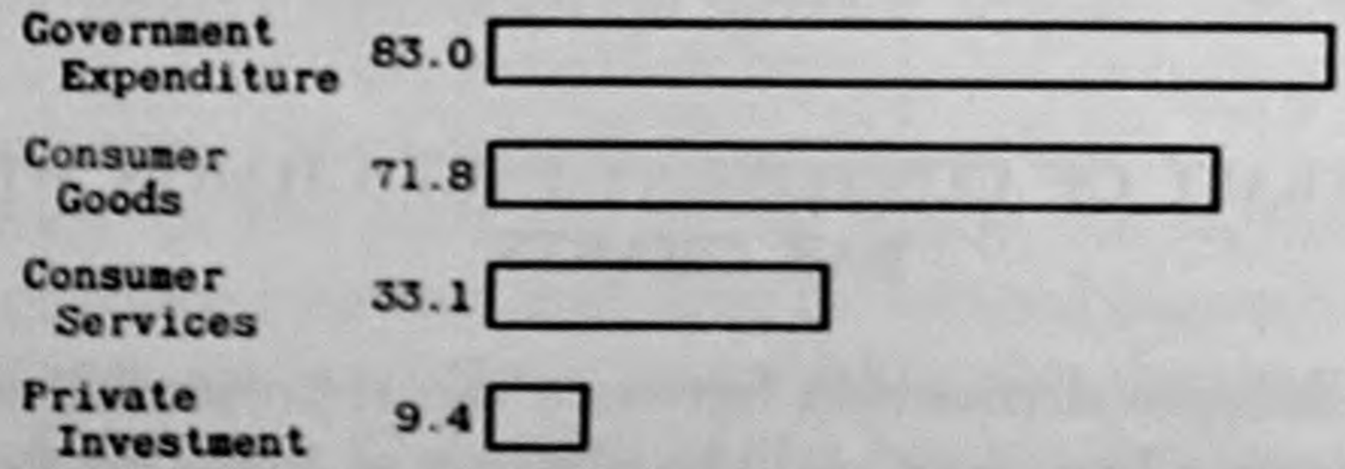


Illustration 51. Component-part Bar Chart. Compare with Figure 43 in which the same information is presented by means of a different method of representation.

(Source: *Statistical Abstract of the United States*, 1946, page 273)

GROSS NATIONAL EXPENDITURE, 1945
Billions of Dollars



Source: Statistical Abstracts

Figure 43. Bar Chart. This chart is an example of how many graphic communications may be prepared almost entirely on the typewriter.

(Source: Statistical Abstracts)

The order of items on a component-part chart is still more important than that of the items on a list because adjacent parts on the chart are easily thought of as a single, larger unit, and these cumulated parts may then be compared with other (cumulated) parts or with the total. On the chart in Illustration 51 it is easy to make comparisons with consumer goods and consumer services taken as a single unit, but a similar comparison cannot be made between consumer services and private investments because these two are not in adjacent positions on the chart.

Parts which are closely related, and which might logically be combined to form a single larger unit, should be placed next to each other on a component-part chart. For example, if we were making a chart of the amount of imports from various countries, the chart would have more meaning if the countries were grouped together by continents so that the imports from each continent may also be observed. Of course, there are other bases of classification, such as size or importance, which might be used instead. In each case the most desirable basis of classification must be selected according to the meaning which the writer intends to convey. When possible bases of classification or grouping conflict, the most desirable one must be selected or two charts must be drawn.

The arrangement of items on accounting statements illustrates the principle of grouping them to form significant subgroups. The statements contain not only the amounts of the individual accounts, but the accounts are arranged so that logical subtotals—cost of sales, operating expenses, etc.—are obtained, and may then be compared with other subtotals or with the whole. The form of accounting statements has been standardized so that subtotals are units which have a definite significance in the comparative analysis of financial statements. In making charts of accounting statements this standardized order should be used. Similarly, charts of other subjects should have closely related parts in adjacent positions, thereby making up meaningful subgroups.

CONTRAST OF COMPONENT-PART CHARTS WITH BAR CHARTS

There is a definite distinction between the representation of several different items on a bar chart and the plotting of items on a component-part chart. On the bar chart the bars are drawn from a common base and go along beside each other. In contrast, the sections of a component-part bar are never side by side. Before the chart is plotted, the numerical value of each part is added to the sum of the parts previously listed,

and this cumulated subtotal, not the value of the individual part, is plotted opposite the corresponding designation of the scale.

Comparative Advantages

With a bar chart it is very easy to make a direct visual comparison of the size of each part because all the bars start from zero on the scale. The numerical value of each bar may also be determined quickly by reference to the scale. Comparisons cannot be made with the whole, or total of all the parts, because it is not desirable to represent the total by another single, longer bar which might easily be misinterpreted as another, larger part.

Component-part charts (and also the belt charts treated in the next section) have the following advantages: (1) the representation of the whole or total enables comparisons to be made with it; (2) properly arranged individual parts may be cumulated into larger units which may also be compared with other (cumulated) parts and with the total, as discussed previously.

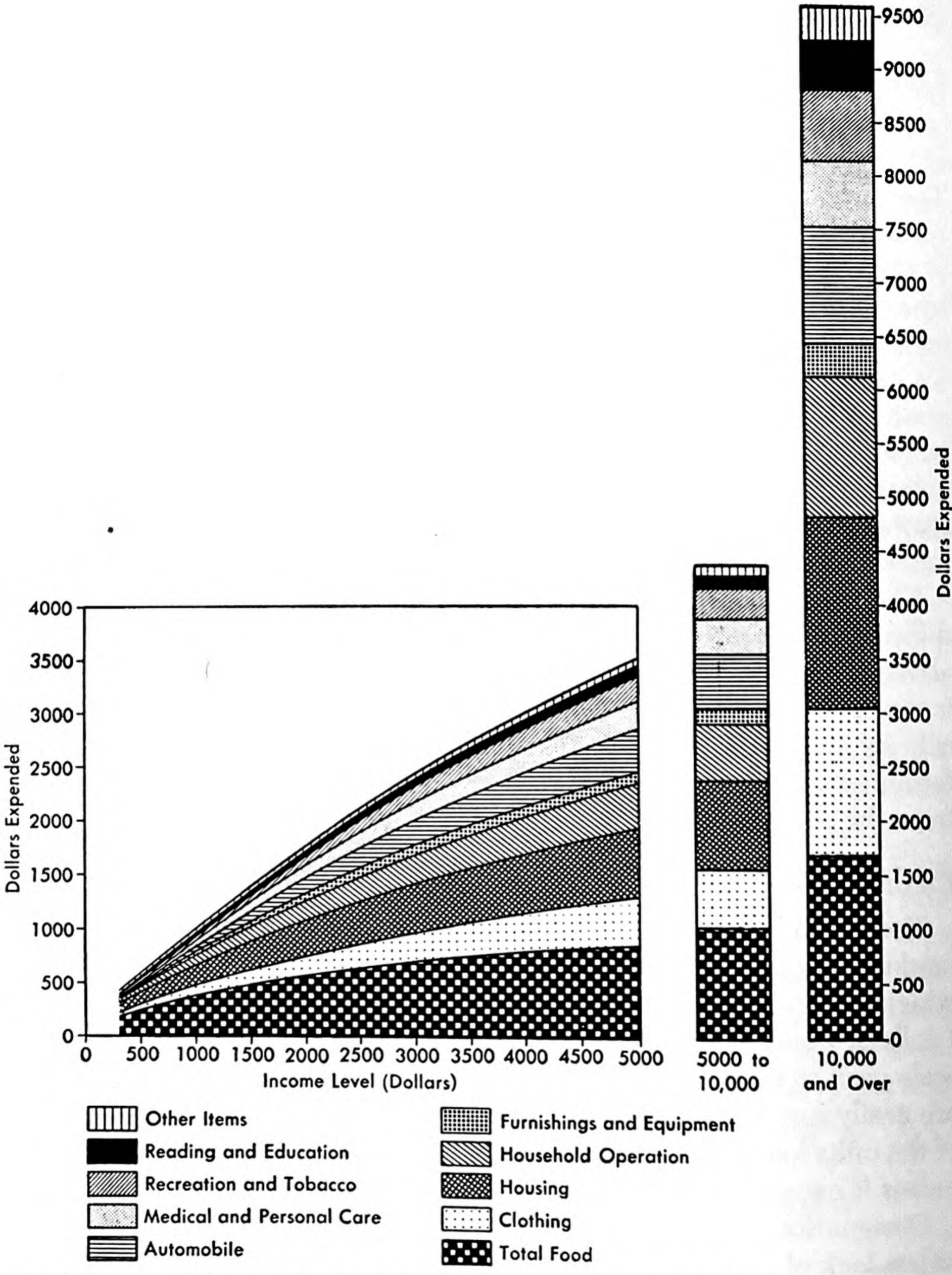
The principal disadvantage of all cumulative charts is the greater difficulty of reading the sizes of the parts because they are placed one above the other rather than starting from a common base. Visually, it is much harder to judge the relative length of sections which are not side by side, and the numerical value of any one portion can be determined only by finding the difference between two subtotals as read from the scale. See Illustration 51 and Figure 43, page 345.

Construction of Component-Part Charts

The construction of component-part bar charts is simply a matter of marking off a section of the bar to represent each part, using a scale which will give the whole bar the desired length. Either absolute units (dollars, pounds, etc.) or percentage units may be employed on the scale used to make up the chart. If the percentages are calculated, they are easily marked off from a scale which is five, ten, or some multiple of ten units long. This scale may then be reduced or enlarged by graphic means if necessary. (See Chapter 13, problem 6.)

Designations for the parts are placed inside the sections of the bar unless lack of space requires that they be located immediately outside. The percentages are sometimes included in the designation, also the actual size of the part. The width of the bar is relatively unimportant, and will be governed by the proportions of the space on which the chart is to be placed. Ordinarily the width should not be less than one-fifth or greater than one-tenth of the length.

In constructing pie-charts the percentages are calculated and multi-



AVERAGE EXPENDITURES FOR CONSUMPTION AT DIFFERENT INCOME LEVELS, 1935–1936

Figure 44. Belt Chart in Absolute Units

(Source: Based on *Consumer Expenditures in the United States*, National Resources Committee)

plied by 3.6 so that the parts may be marked off in degrees (360 degrees in a circle) on the circumference with the aid of a protractor.

BELT CHARTS

Component-part charts show the relation of parts to the whole as it exists at any one time. Belt charts also show how this relationship varies over a period of time. These changes might be shown by making a series of component-part bar charts for each of several time periods and placing these charts side by side. The belt chart combines these separate charts into one graph. The vertical scale of the belt chart reads in either percentages or absolute units, and time is plotted along the horizontal "belt," so that each component-part forms a horizontal belt across the chart. Variations in the width of the belt show the chronological changes in the part it represents.

PROPORTIONATE DISTRIBUTION OF AVERAGE EXPENDITURES FOR CONSUMPTION AT DIFFERENT INCOME LEVELS, 1935–1936

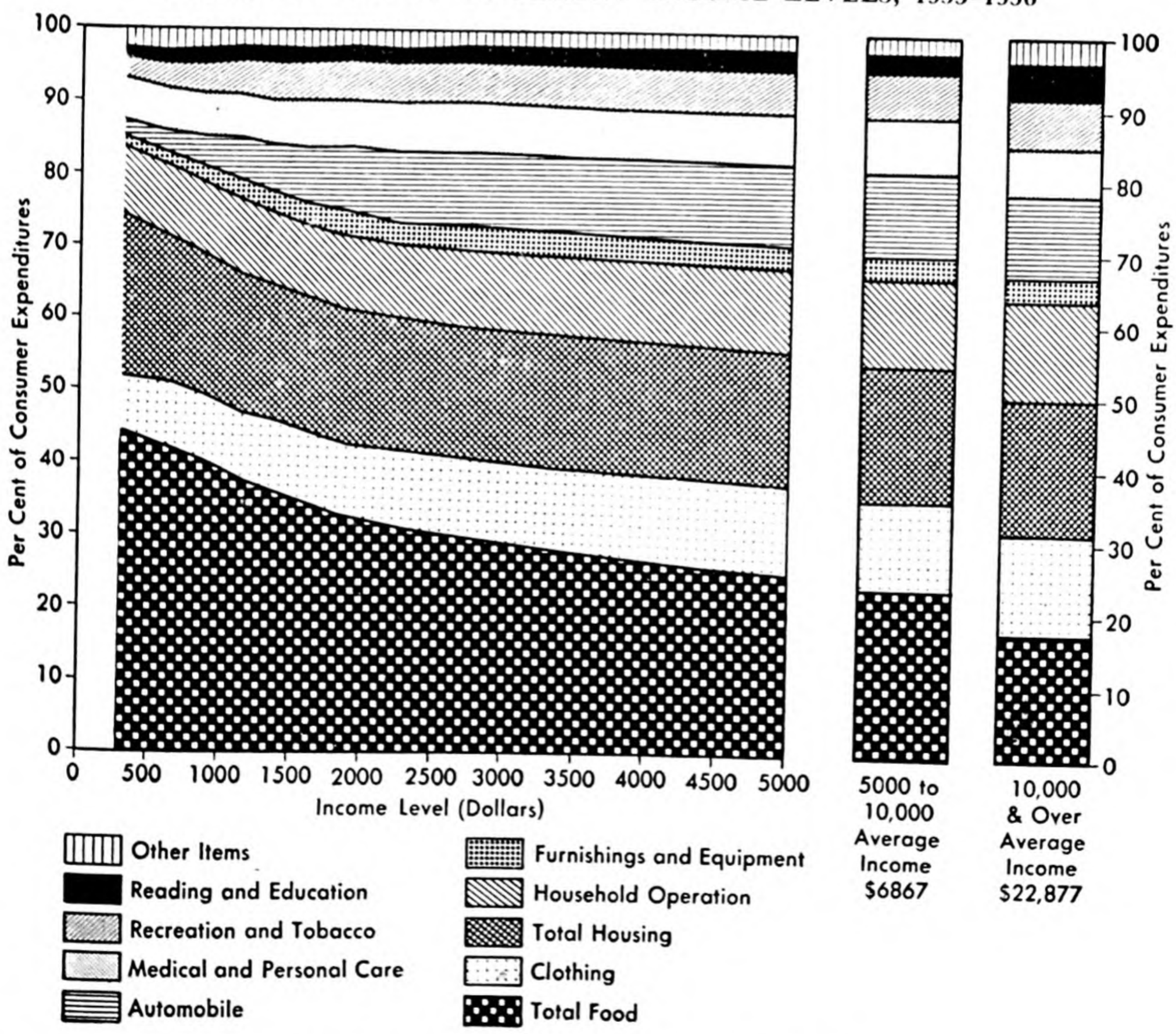


Figure 45. Belt Chart in Percentage Units

(Source: Based on *Consumer Expenditures in the United States*, National Resources Committee)

In constructing component-part charts the graphic result is the same whether a scale of physical units or percentages is used. But in belt charts a careful distinction must be made between *belt charts in absolute units* and *percentage belt charts.*

The simple belt chart shows the actual size of the subject as measured in either physical units or monetary units. The top line on the chart represents the total, and shows variations in the size of the total in the same way as if it were a single curve on a line chart. Similarly, each of the lower lines portrays the variations in the subtotal of all the parts included beneath them. The width of the belt between any two lines shows changes in the size of the particular part the belt represents.

Since the total of a series is usually changing at the same time that the individual parts are changing, it is difficult to judge changes in the relative importance of each part when using a simple belt chart. For example, if we have a belt chart showing the material, labor and overhead cost of a same company, for various years, as in Figure 46, it is hard to observe whether the proportional importance of each product is changing or remaining constant. Actual figures must be read from the chart, and then percentage calculations made. A more efficient means of communicating the variations in relative importance of the parts is to use a percentage belt chart, as shown in Figure 47.

The top line on a percentage belt chart represents the total, which is also the base for calculating the other percentages; hence it is a straight, horizontal line always reading 100 per cent regardless of the changes in the actual size of the total. Variations in the width of each belt represent changes whose significance is shown in the following table:

Change in Belt Width (on a percentage belt chart)	*Significance*
Belt becoming wider	Relative importance of the part (percentage of the total) is increasing. Consequently, that of some other part(s) is decreasing.
Belt becoming narrower	Relative importance of the part is decreasing; that of other parts, increasing.
Constant belt width	Relative importance of the part is the same.

The relative importance of a part may remain the same even though the actual figures are changing. Then the changes in the part are proportional to the changes in the total. For example, if total sales change from 40 million to 60 million, sales of product A will then go from 10 million to 15 million. This increase is 50 per cent in both the total sales and the sales of product A, but the percentage of product A sales to total sales remains the same—25 per cent.

Figures 46 and 47 show an application of belt charts to the analysis of manufacturing costs taken from accounting statements. The chart in absolute units indicates the sizes of each of the three items and also of the total. The percentage belt chart shows that the overhead expenses became proportionally greater during the depression years, which was not apparent from observing the first chart.

Coordinate Use of Several Charts

Belt charts in absolute units, percentage belt charts, and the percentage change charts discussed in the following chapter all bring out different characteristics of numerical data. Line charts and belt charts plotted in absolute units facilitate the comparison of the characteristic size. One of these charts should always be used when sizes are to be compared. Percentage belt charts isolate the relative importance of the parts with respect to the total. They can be used for this purpose only, and *not* for the comparison of sizes. No one chart is sufficient for a complete analysis and communication of all the characteristics of numerical information. The same data should be plotted on all the different types of charts in order to isolate the various characteristics.

Construction of Belt Charts

The major distinction between line charts and belt charts is the same as that between bar charts and component-part bar charts – the items on a belt chart are cumulated. The easiest procedure for drawing

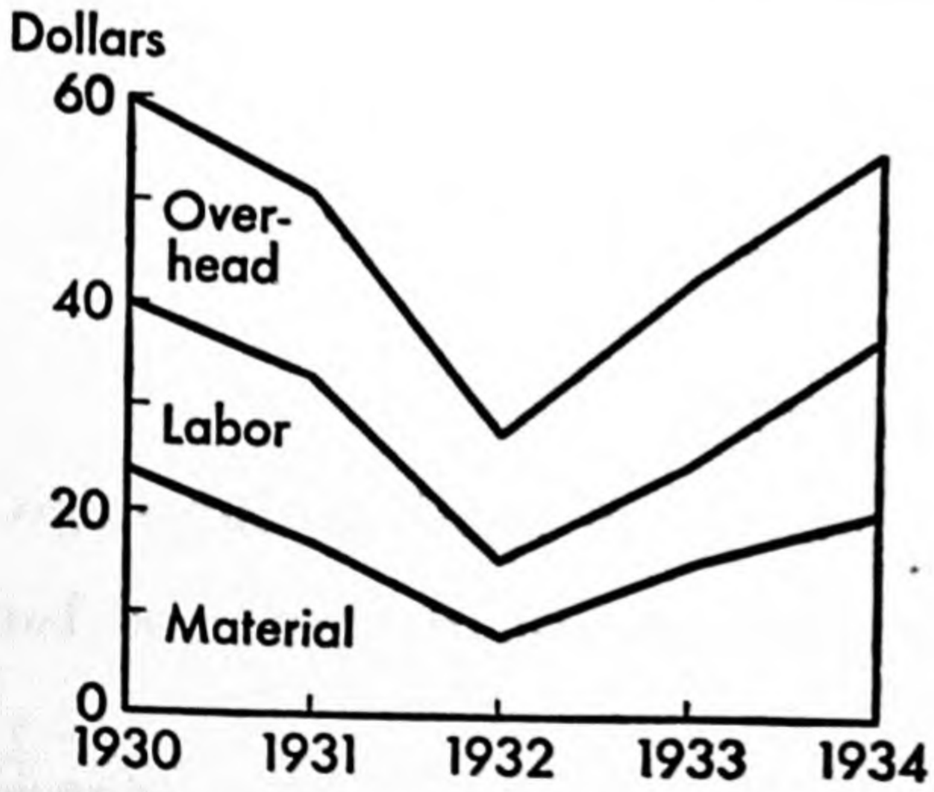


Figure 46. Belt Chart in Absolute Units

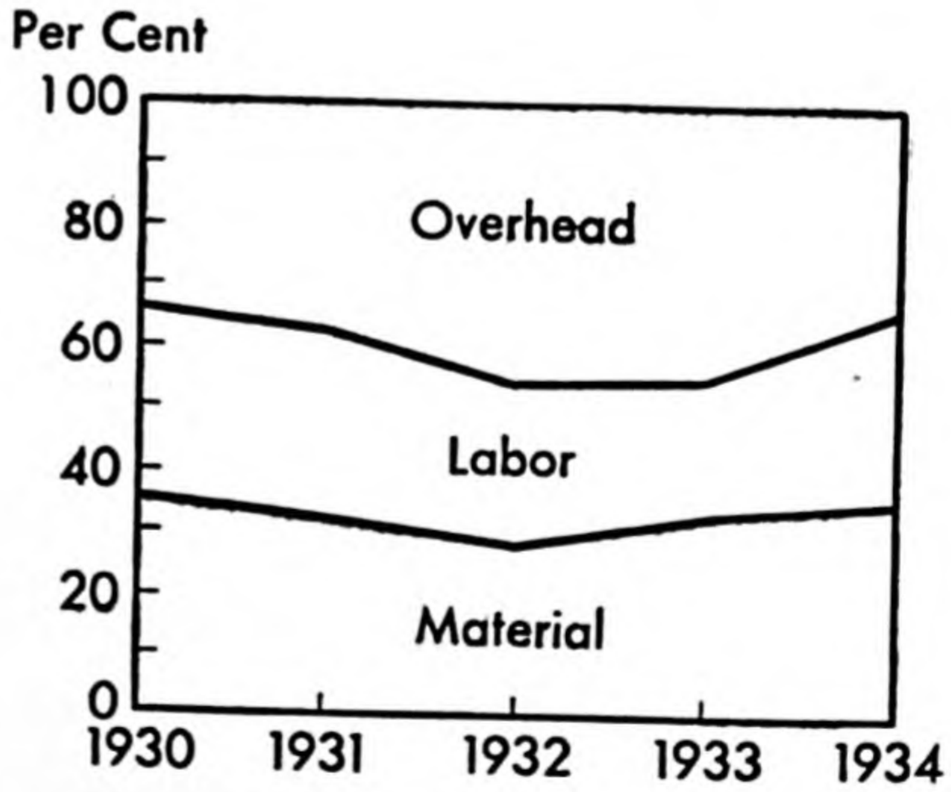


Figure 47. Percentage Belt Chart

belt charts is to cumulate the data and calculate cumulated percentages before beginning to make the actual chart. For example, the tabulation below shows actual data to be charted; in the lower section, the data have been cumulated and percentages calculated. The base for each percentage is the total for the year, and the numerator is the

cumulated data for the particular belt. It would be possible to calculate the percentage that each part is of the total, but then these percentages would have to be cumulated. Calculating the percentages from the cumulated data saves one step. The two charts are shown in Figures 46 and 47.

The name of each belt on the chart should be placed as near the center of the belt as possible. Frequently shading is used to differentiate between the belts, but this is not absolutely necessary if the dividing lines are heavy and if labels are placed in the center of the belt. The appearance of the completed chart should be such that there is no doubt that it is a belt chart and not a line chart. The labels on a line chart should be placed next to the lines if a key is not used.

MANUFACTURING EXPENSES

(thousands of dollars)

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Material	22	17	8	14	20
Labor	18	15	7	10	17
Overhead	20	19	13	18	19
Total	60	51	28	42	56

CUMULATIVE DATA AND PERCENTAGES

	1930		*1931*		*1932*		*1933*		*1934*	
	$	%	$	%	$	%	$	%	$	%
Material	22	37	17	33	8	29	14	33	30	36
Labor and material	40	67	32	63	15	54	24	57	37	66
Overhead, labor and material	60	100	51	100	28	100	42	100	56	100

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Explain what is meant by the phrase *formation of significant subgroups.*
2. What is the basic difference between component-part charts and bar charts?
3. Explain why a bar chart gives a more accurate visual comparison of sizes than does a component-part chart.
4. When should a component-part chart be used rather than a bar chart?
5. Explain why either absolute or relative units will give the same visual results when making a component-part chart, but there may be a distinct difference in belt charts made with absolute units and those made with percentage units.

6. From the communication standpoint, what is the value of belt charts in absolute units? Of percentage belt charts?

7. Using the same numerical data, is it possible to have the belt representing one part on a percentage belt chart becoming wider, and the belt for the same part on the absolute unit chart becoming narrower? Explain.

PROBLEMS

Yearly Sales in
Thousands of Dollars

Product	1944	1945	1946	1947	1948
A	6	9	12	12	8
B	8	12	15	20	12
C	5	8	10	5	5
D	10	15	20	25	15

1. Calculate the cumulative data and percentages.

2. Construct a belt chart showing amount of sales.

3. Construct a belt chart showing proportionate percentages of sales.

4. Determine and state carefully the conclusions that can be drawn from (a) the data, (b) the percentage figures, (c) the two charts.

CHAPTER 18

Percentage Change Charts

In contrast with percentage change charts, all time series charts previously studied present direct, visual comparison of the amounts, or sizes, of the things plotted on them. In this respect they are similar to pictures of actual objects, and are easily understood by the layman.

In addition to size alone, percentage changes are also important characteristic numerical business information. The percentage change chart is useful for analysis and communication of numerical information about business because it presents a direct visual comparison of percentage changes. That is, a reader can glance at a chart and compare the rate at which changes are taking place. Using these charts, the business man can make a quick comparison of the rates of change in different parts of his business and business generally. Unlike the other charts studied, percentage change charts focus attention on percentage changes but not on other characteristics of a time series.

In order to understand the significance of changes as they are taking place, we need to study the percentage change, or rate at which the changes are occurring, as well as differences in size which result from the changes. For example, if we are listening to a radio broadcast of a boat race, we want to know which boat is ahead, and also which boats are gaining or losing. If a boat is behind, but is now moving faster than the others, it has a chance to capture the lead position. Even though its distance traveled is less than that of the others, its rate of travel is greater, and if it can continue the faster rate, it may overtake the others. In the same way, we need to study percentage changes in business as well as the size relationships. Percentage change charts help us to understand the nature of changes which are taking place in business, to predict future sizes, and to make sound management decisions. Absolute changes and relative changes become emphatic and more nearly concrete when they are recorded in graphic form. Moreover, the significance of the changes can be determined by detailed examination after the relationship between units of size and of time has been charted.

AMOUNTS OF CHANGE AND PERCENTAGE CHANGE

The difference between a constant amount of change and a constant percentage change is illustrated by the difference between simple and compound interest.

With a principal of $100 and simple interest at 5 per cent, a constant amount, $5, is added to the principal each year, so that in successive years the principal of $100 becomes $105, $110, $115, etc. With compound interest, 5 per cent of the current principal is added each year. This amounts to $5 the first year, but 5 per cent of the new principal of $105 is added the next year, bringing the principal up to $110.25. Because the principal becomes larger each year, the amount added increases each year also. The percentage added, 5 per cent, remains constant, but the amount changes. The series which changes by a constant amount is called an arithmetic series; by a constant percentage, a geometric series.

In actual practice it is exceptional to find a business which grows at either an exactly constant amount or an exactly constant percentage, but comparison of actual figures with both of the types of growth greatly facilitates understanding and analysis of a business. According to some theories, many changes should take place at a constant percentage rather than a constant amount, and often a careful study of percentage changes will be helpful in studying a business.

Terminology

Percentage change charts are also referred to by several other names with which the student should be familiar. These names include ratio charts, log charts, logarithmic charts, semilogarithmic, and rate-of-change charts. The author considers percentage change to be the most appropriate title from the business standpoint, but since the other names are frequently used they are included here.

Characteristics of Logarithmic Scale

As already mentioned, the percentage change chart enables the reader to make direct visual comparisons of percentage changes. This is because the spaces between the numbers on the vertical scale are not equal, but are proportional to the logarithms of the numbers. However, a person need not understand logarithms in order to read or draw percentage change charts. It is only necessary to understand the characteristics discussed below and the methods presented for their appreciation.

Equal Vertical Distances Represent Equal Percentage Changes

The student should become thoroughly familiar with this characteristic by performing the following simple experiment. Place the edge of a piece of scrap paper alongside the vertical scale of a percentage change chart and mark on the paper the distance between the 2 and the 4 on the scale (Figure 48). This distance represents an increase of 100 per cent, and may be so labeled. Now move the paper so that the lower mark is opposite the 3, and the upper mark falls opposite the 6, an increase of 100 per cent. Again, place the lower mark on the 5, and the upper one falls on the 10, also an increase of 100 per cent. Further experimenting will prove that the same linear distance always represents the same percentage change, regardless of the size of the base. At this point we may also note that the size of the change represented by this constant linear distance increases as we go up the scale. That is, the size of the 100 per cent increase from 2 to 4 was two units, but that from 5 to 10 was five units. In other words, equal distances on the rate of change scale represent equal percentage changes, but the absolute size which a distance represents varies with its position on the scale.

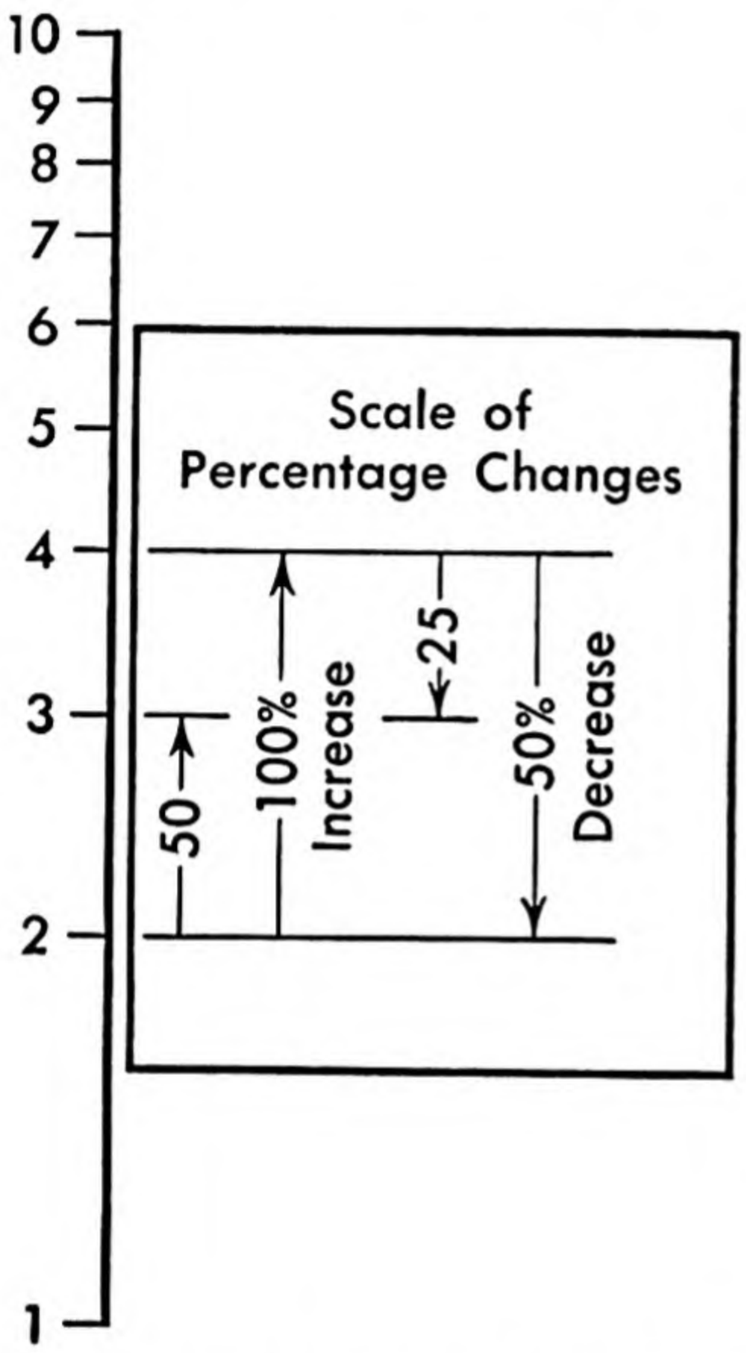


Figure 48. Scale for Measuring Percentage Changes on a Logarithmic Scale

This characteristic of the logarithmic scale should be contrasted with the ordinary arithmetic scale. On the edge of a piece of scrap paper mark off the distance between 4 and 6 on an arithmetic scale (the scale of an ordinary ruler will suffice). Label the distance 2 *units*. Place the paper so that the lower mark is opposite the 3 and the upper mark falls on the 5, a difference of 2 units. A constant amount of change is represented by the same distance anywhere along the scale. However, this constant amount is a different percentage change in each different position on the scale. The two units represent an increase of 50 per cent between 4 and 6, but this changes to 67 per cent between 3 and 5.

These characteristics of the arithmetic and logarithmic scales are exactly opposite. To summarize them, on the arithmetic scale any specified distance will represent the same amount anywhere on the scale, but the percentage will vary. On the rate of change scale, any

specified distance will represent the same percentage change regardless of its position on the scale, but the amount will vary.

Neither the arithmetic nor the percentage change chart should be used to the exclusion of the other. For a complete communication of the characteristics of time series, both types should be employed. The

PRODUCTION OF MOTOR VEHICLES

Factory Sales of Automobiles and Trucks

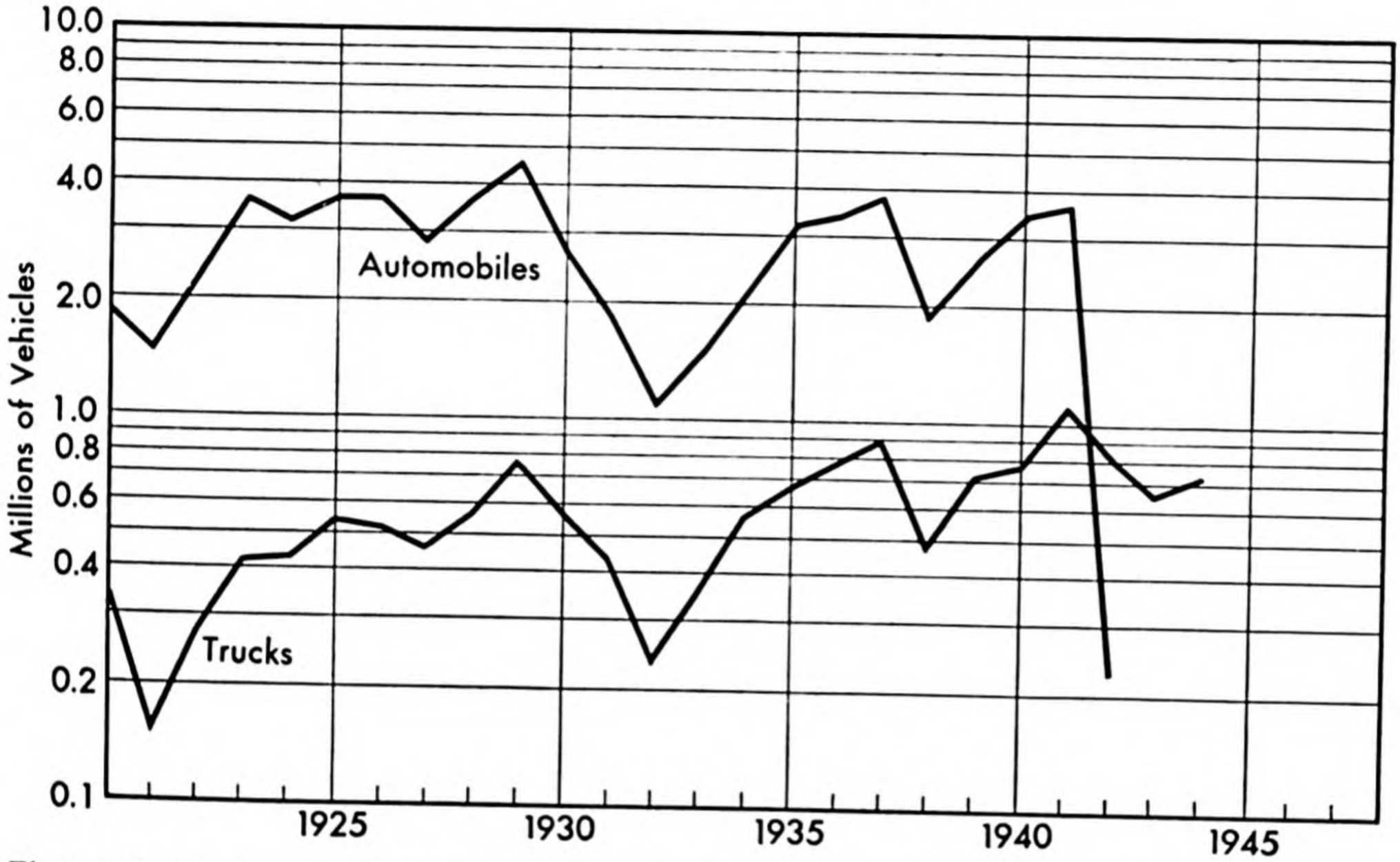


Figure 49. Percentage Change or Ratio Chart. Percentage changes may be visually compared by observing the slopes of the lines. Sizes may be read from the vertical scale, but the chart does not give an accurate and direct visual impression of size differences. Compare with Figure 37, page 320, which shows the same data plotted on an arithmetic scale, giving a correct visual impression of size differences.

(Source: Statistical Abstracts of United States)

arithmetic chart is needed to show the relation between sizes and the size of changes, and to enable the reader to recognize a series that tends to change by a constant amount; the rate-of-change chart, for showing rates of change, and enabling the reader to recognize a series that tends to change at a constant percentage.

Significance of Slopes

Since equal vertical distances represent equal percentage changes, a series that is changing at a constant percentage will be a straight line on a percentage change chart. If change is positive—if the series is increasing—the straight line will slope upward from left to right. If the change is negative—if the series is decreasing—the line will slope downward from left to right.

A curved line on a rate-of-change chart indicates that the rate of change is also changing. That is, the percentage change is not constant, but is different each year (or other time period). When a series is increasing at a decreasing rate the line becomes less steep as it goes to the right. The significance of this and other slopes is shown in Figure 50.

The significance of the slopes on a rate of change chart should be contrasted with that of an arithmetic chart. A series which is changing by a constant amount each period will be a straight line on an arithmetic chart. A constant rate of change will become a curved line on

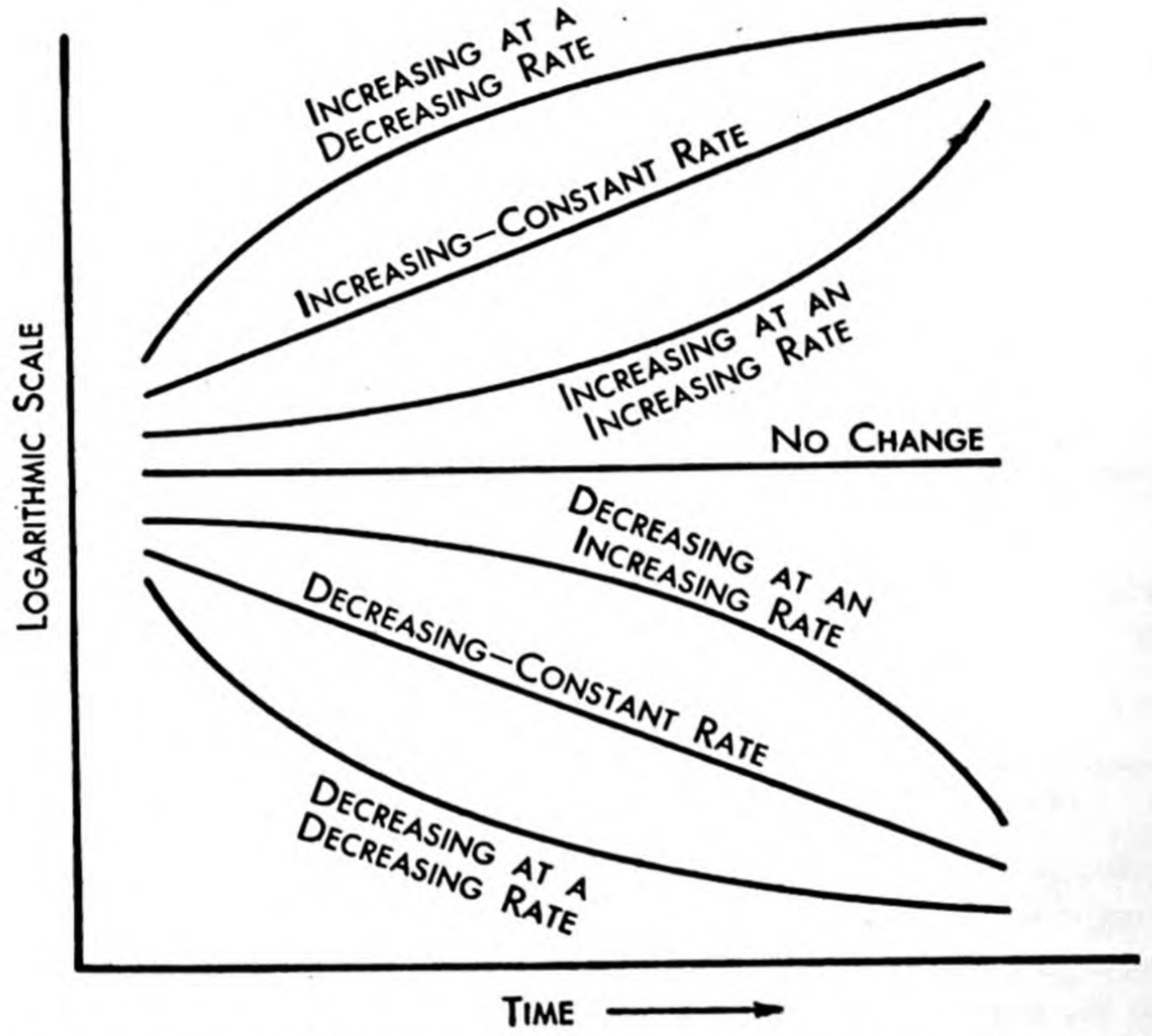


Figure 50. Significance of Slopes of Lines on Ratio or Percentage Change Charts

the arithmetic chart, but the curve is hard to distinguish, so that it is difficult to identify a constant rate of change on an arithmetic chart. Conversely, a constant amount of change will give a curved line on a rate-of-change chart, but this particular curve is difficult to identify, so that this characteristic, constant amount of change, will not be readily recognized on the percentage change chart.

Vertical Scale Decks

The spacings on the vertical scale of a percentage change chart divide it into decks or cycles. There are ten main spaces to each cycle, those at the bottom being wide, and becoming progressively narrower as the top is approached. The number at the top of a deck is always 10 times the number at the bottom. The lower number is usually

some multiple of 10 and contains only one significant figure, 1. Thus, the lower number may be 10,000, 100, or 0.01. Less frequently a significant figure other than 1 is used, but in any case, the number at the top is always 10 times the number at the bottom.

The designations of the 10 main spacings follow in order so that the deck contains a complete multiple of 10. Each main space may be divided into 10 secondary spaces, and so on. The student who is familiar with the slide rule will recognize that the proportions of the scale and system of notations are the same as on the slide rule.

Theoretically there is no limit to the number of decks which may be placed next to each other to obtain a desired range of numbers, but the number at the top of each succeeding deck must always be 10 times the number at the bottom.

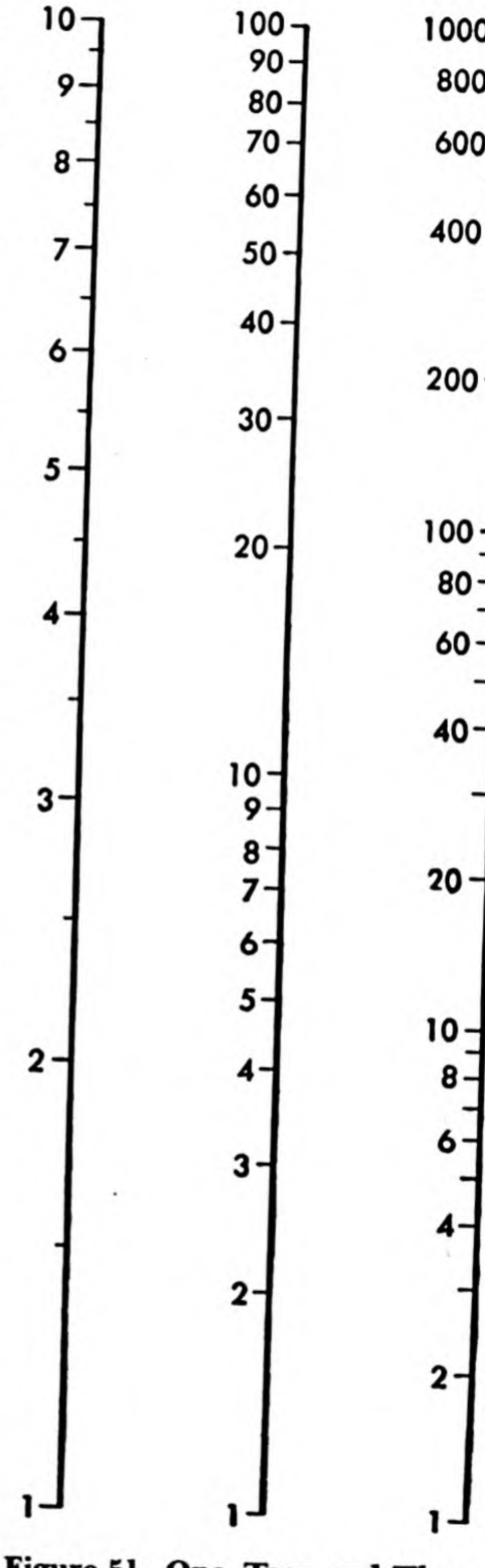


Figure 51. One, Two, and Three Deck Scales for Percentage Change Charts

No Zero on Vertical Scale

There can never be a zero point on a rate-of-change scale. If we continue to add lower decks, the number at the bottom of each deck will always be one-tenth of the number at the top, so that the numbers will continue to become smaller, but never become zero. Consequently, it is impossible to use a percentage change chart to show a series which has both positive and negative numbers. The fact that there is no zero on the scale emphasizes the point that *a percentage change chart should not be used for comparisons of size.*

Usefulness of Percentage Change Charts

Percentage change charts provide a visual means of identifying and comparing rates of change. By plotting any time series on a rate-of-change chart it is possible to tell at a glance whether it is changing at a constant, increasing, or decreasing rate. The slope of the line during different periods allows the reader to compare the rates of change during these periods.

When two time series are plotted on a rate-of-change chart the slopes of the two lines give a direct visual comparison of rates of change. If two series have the same slope, they are changing at the same rate. If one slope is steeper than the other, the steeper slope is changing faster. It is important to note that the slopes on an amount-of-change chart do *not* have this significance, because a large series may have small percentage changes which are larger in size than those of the second, smaller series, giving the curve of the large series a steeper slope—because the amounts of change are greater, but the percentage changes are not.

It is important to note that percentage changes are not read directly from the vertical scale, but it is possible to read sizes on this scale and then calculate rates of change. Since equal vertical distances represent the same percentage change anywhere on the chart, an auxiliary scale, similar to the scale of miles on a map, may be drawn for the chart. This auxiliary scale may also be in the form of different slopes or angles for different percentage changes. *However, the greatest value of percentage change charts is that percentage changes may be visually compared without even knowing what their numerical values are.*

Index Numbers on Percentage Change Charts

It is highly desirable that index numbers be plotted on rate-of-change charts, because a direct visual comparison of percentage changes, rather than successive size changes, is obtained. This procedure eliminates the misinterpretation of differences in index numbers as percentage changes (see section on index numbers).

When index numbers are plotted on rate-of-change charts, all concepts and illusions of size are lost, and attention is focused on the relation between the percentage changes of the series shown.

A similar graphic picture may be obtained by plotting the actual data of each series and then superimposing the curves. That is, each curve is plotted on a deck with the appropriate scale notations, and then the curves are picked up and placed on top of each other. Sometimes they are placed a short distance apart, rather than superimposed, so that it is easier to distinguish each curve, as shown in Figure 52. In both cases, notations on the vertical scale have no significance, and may be replaced by a brief note that a rate of change (or ratio scale) was used in plotting the curves.

Transparent paper may also be used to advantage to compare more curves than can be shown on a single chart. Sometimes an average of all of them is calculated and plotted on transparent paper so that any one curve may be compared with the average by laying the average on

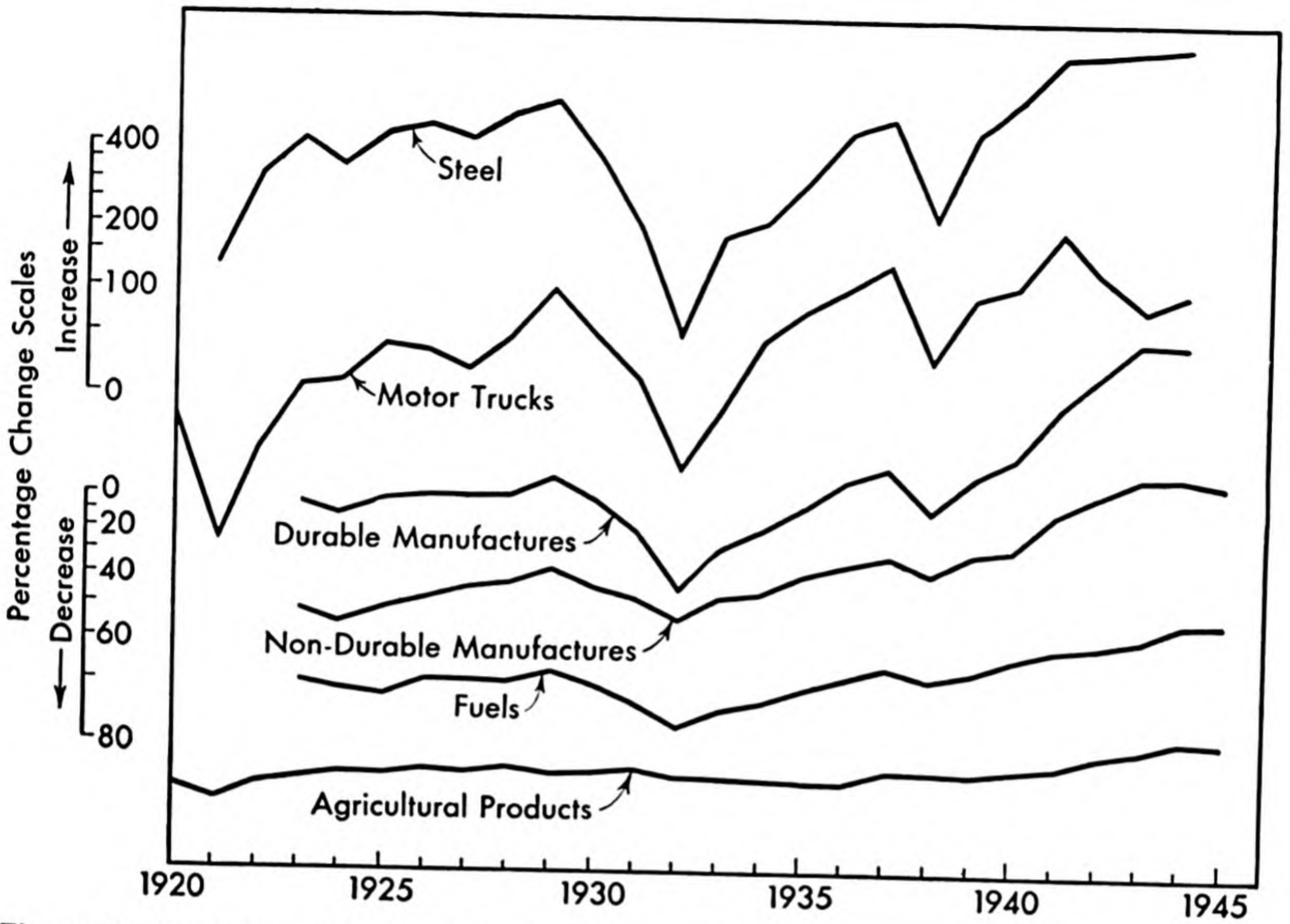


Figure 52. Percentage Change or Ratio Chart. Percentage changes may be visually compared, but this chart gives *no* indication of size. Curves based upon a uniform scale have been placed near each other to facilitate the visual comparison of percentage changes.

top of it. Of course, both the vertical and horizontal scales of all charts must be uniform.

Construction of Percentage Change Charts

Except for the vertical scale and the horizontal ruling, the construction of rate-of-change charts is similar to that of other line charts. Graph paper with one, two, or three decks may be purchased, or the whole grid may be drawn by the chart maker. It is possible to obtain the correct proportions for the ratio scale by measuring off the logarithms of the numbers, but the proportions can generally be obtained from the scale of a slide rule or another chart, and then reduced or enlarged by graphic methods so that a suitable scale for the chart at hand is obtained. (See Chapter 13, problem 6.)

The simplest procedure for selecting and labeling the decks is to begin with a tenth multiple of 1. The largest and smallest figures in the data are found, and the vertical scale is designed to include both of these numbers. The largest tenth multiple of one which is less than the smallest number to be charted is placed at the bottom of the first deck,

and the deck is then labeled so that its top number is ten times the bottom one. If the smallest number is 189, then the scale will start at 100; if it is 78,000, the scale will start at 10,000, etc. Additional decks are added until the number at the top of a deck is greater than the largest figure to be plotted. The number of decks needed will be one more than the difference between the number of digits in the smallest and largest figures. There is no objection to omitting these parts of a deck which are above the largest or below the smallest figure.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Explain the difference between a constant percentage change and a constant amount of change, using a numerical example.
2. What other names are also used to designate a percentage change chart?
3. On an arithmetic scale, does the same linear distance represent the same percentage change anywhere on the scale? Explain.
4. Is it possible to have one series which is changing by both a constant amount and a constant percentage? Explain.
5. Since the percentage change charts have not a vertical scale reading in per cents as percentage belt charts do, how is it that the term *percentage change chart* is justified?
6. How many decks will be needed to chart a series ranging from 874 to 5,192? From 3,898 to 248,176? From 0.038 to 1.25?
7. A series ranging from 57 to 84 is to be shown on a percentage change chart. Is it necessary to carry the vertical scale down to 10 or 1, or may it be stopped at 50? Explain.
8. When reading business charts, how can you quickly distinguish percentage change charts from arithmetic charts, even though the type of chart is not designated in the title or notations?

PROBLEMS

1. Series A starts at 20 units in 1930 and increases 8 units each year. Series B starts at 20 units in 1930 also, but increases 40 per cent each year. Calculate the values for each series between 1930 and 1935, and plot both series on both arithmetic and percentage change charts. Label the curves with the proper term—arithmetic or geometric. Describe in words the appearance of each series on each chart.
2. Plot both of the following time series on both arithmetic and logarithmic charts:

	1944	*1945*	*1946*	*1947*	*1948*
Territory A	800	980	1000	800	990
Territory B	20	29	30	21	28

By visual inspection of the two charts, compare each territory with respect to: (a) average sales volume, (b) average size of the changes in volume, and (c) relative importance of the changes.

3. Plot the following time series on both arithmetic and log paper.

	1943	*1944*	*1945*	*1946*	*1947*
Series A	400	440	506	607	869
Series B	400	325	250	175	100
Series C	200	360	480	570	600
Series D	100	139	194	271	391
Series E	700	682	648	584	467
Series F	200	250	300	350	400
Series G	300	180	144	120	114

Make a verbal table to summarize the characteristics of the changes in each of the above series as determined by inspection of the charts. Use the names of the series as stubs, and have two captions, rate of change, and amount of change. In the field enter the notation increasing, decreasing, or constant, according to the characteristics of the series.

4. Sketch two pairs of coordinate axes, omitting scale designations. Label the vertical scale of one, *arithmetic scale,* and the vertical scale of the other, *logarithmetic scale.* On these axes sketch Series O and Series P having the characteristics described below:

At the beginning of the year represented by the horizontal axes of the charts, Series O was four times as large as Series P. Over the entire year Series O increased 50 per cent. At the end of the year, Series P was 50 per cent of the size of Series O at the end of the year. The amount of change in Series O was the same during each month of the year. The percentage change in Series P was the same during each month of the year. Sketch both series on both charts.

BORROWER'S NO.	ISSUE DATE	BORROWER'S NO.	ISSUE DATE

PART THREE

ORAL COMMUNICATION

BORROWER'S NO.	ISSUE DATE	BORROWER'S NO.	ISSUE DATE

CHAPTER 19

Oral Communication–The Preferred Means of Communication

THE PLACE OF ORAL COMMUNICATION

Oral communication is the preferred means of communication in business. Contrasted with written communication it is faster, easier, more personal, and often more economical. When the president of a company needs figures on costs, the sales manager must expedite an order, or a foreman is asked for the rate on a special job, oral communication is the fastest, easiest, and most economical way of securing such vital information.

No function of business is accomplished without being furthered by oral communication—whether it be finance, purchasing, manufacturing, distribution, accounting, personnel, or administration.

No group of persons or individuals in an organization are untouched by oral communication—whether they be employee, supervisory, management, or administrative personnel.

Oral communication must be used in personal or group relations with employees, with customers, with stockholders, with the government, with the public, and with local, state, and national business and trade associations.

Oral communication holds first place. It is preferred always where its use is economical and where the written record is not essential.

BENEFITS OF TRAINING

The general aim of training in oral communication is simple, direct, natural, forceful, purposeful speech. Any person with normal intelligence, personality, and voice can attain this aim reasonably well through training.

Few persons in business have the ability to communicate effectively

in conferences, meetings, and before audiences. Those few who are trained and can present their ideas clearly and to the satisfaction of the group stand out as leaders of the group. There are many who have the knowledge but cannot express themselves adequately because they have never learned to free their channels of communication. Consequently, by comparison they appear less capable than the trained individuals who effortlessly communicate with poise, diplomacy, and forcefulness.

Ideas so expressed that they influence and persuade others are ideas multiplied. That is the essence of leadership—getting things done through others. Training in oral communication is a step toward leadership.

Through training you will become aware of your personality needs and you will learn how to meet them. Further, you will develop skills that you did not have before and you will become aware of abilities that were latent; you will free the channels of communication so that your words, tones, and actions will be efficient tools which will respond quickly and forcibly to your thoughts and emotions; you will meet oral situations with a confidence that will inspire others to have confidence in you.

You will acquire a feeling of confidence and personal satisfaction as you realize that you are prepared to fulfill all of the responsibilities of your job whether they be those of knowledge or communication.

One of your major satisfactions will result from ability to help others through your skill in explaining, convincing, and persuading. You will be able to do this because you will have trained yourself to look at everything you say from their point of view.

Training will teach you to talk less but say more when you do talk—and say that effectively.

What Training Must Include

The objective of training in platform communication is the effective oral presentation of a well-organized talk on a subject worth while to the audience. This text, together with your class work, provides training to accomplish that objective.

The second consideration is that the talk be acceptable to the listeners. This implies a worthwhile message delivered in an acceptable manner.

Logical organization is the third consideration. The talk must progress to a definite objective.

In addition to the theory of speaking, training must include practice. Speaking is learned by speaking. It is a skill, and as such must be

learned by repetition of the correct pattern. If you never had the benefit of reading a book on speaking, or studying under an instructor, but spoke frequently, you might develop facility in speaking. A text and an instructor shorten the learning period and eliminate the necessity of the trial and error method.

Ab. Majid Bihari Pour.

CHAPTER 20

Confidence

Confidence is your personal goal. It is a state or feeling of assurance in yourself—assurance that you will be in full command of your material, your purpose, the situation, and yourself. It develops with each successful experience.

If you are like most beginners in platform communication, your No. 1 problem is fear. Oral communication is a highly personal activity through which we reveal our inward selves more openly than we do in any other way. Therefore it is only natural that we should be sensitive about it before an audience.

The usual symptoms of fear are a sudden increase in the rate of heartbeat, a tension or weak feeling in the region of the solar plexus, a dry mouth, a weakness of the knees, some degree of mental confusion, broken phrasing, perhaps blurred vision, and a general overactivity of the whole organism. The physiologist describes this disturbed state of equilibrium as "one of internal visceral modifications with external muscular activity and locomotion."

The cause of the disturbed state, as implied above, is fear—fear of inadequacy or fear of total failure in meeting the speaking requirements. The disturbed state is initiated when glycogen, a sugarlike secretion, is released by the liver, and when adrenalin is released by the adrenal glands. These glandular reflexes always function with the primitive emotion of fear. They are nature's way of stimulating and preparing the organism for a sudden expenditure of energy in anticipation of a need to flee or fight.

Since by fleeing the speaker would suffer loss of prestige in his own estimation and that of his contemporaries, he decides to use the energy to fight his own fear.

The tension of the stirred up state is usually overcome or greatly reduced once the speaker begins to speak. After his first talk is completed he realizes that his fear was greater than the actual experience warranted. He may have come out of the experience only second best but

he knows that he can survive it. Survival is the first step in building confidence.

What is the nature of the fear of the beginning speaker? Basically, it is a state of uncertainty. He is uncertain as to what the tools of communication are, how, where, when, and why they are used. He wonders whether he will be asked to speak before he knows what the tools are or has at least some idea of how to use them. Will he be measured by the standards of experienced speakers? How much better will the other members of his class be than he is? Will he be able to remember his first talk or will he become so confused that he will not be able to finish it? Will he be able to perform at the standard he holds for himself?

Such are the questions and fears that the normal beginner brings to platform communication. If you have had similar questions in your mind, you are normal. This point is stressed only because a beginner sometimes thinks no one else feels the same way as he does and that perhaps there is something physically or even psychologically wrong with him. Most successful speakers would readily admit to having had the same fears in their preparatory days.

It may help you if, instead of fearing the fear reaction, you look forward to it as a normal reaction in adjustment to a new experience. For after all, isn't the new experience quite different? Instead of speaking with one, two, or three in an informal setting, you will speak to twenty-five, fifty, or a hundred in a somewhat formal setting; instead of a few pairs of eyes focused on you, all the eyes in the room will be focused on you; instead of being a member of a group, you will be the center of attention; instead of contributing a thought at a time, which requires five to thirty seconds, you will contribute all thoughts, which may require continuous mental production for from five to thirty minutes; instead of jumping from subject to subject as you can in conversation, you must hold to one theme and it must be developed thought by thought in a logical sequence; and instead of using your normal voice volume you must increase it two to three times. These are only a few of the subtle factors to which your personality must make adjustments. You cannot give full attention to your message until you overcome your fears.

The following suggestions, if made a part of your thinking and action pattern, will help considerably to develop the confidence you want and need. The secret of confidence comes with knowing what to do and then doing it. Practice these suggestions at every opportunity until they become so much a part of your pattern that you are no longer aware of using them.

WHAT YOU NEED TO DO TO GAIN CONFIDENCE

1. Look forward eagerly to sharing the message with your listeners. It is more sensible to think why you should enjoy sharing than why you should fear sharing. The stimulation that you will get from positive thinking will benefit you; the stimulation from negative thinking will disturb you. Talk from your listeners' point of view.

2. Forget self. Have a definite purpose and abandon yourself to it. Hold strong convictions about your ideas. Once you are before your audience, give your full attention to the subject and its importance to the listeners. Thinking of self will divide your attention and may result in a break of thought sequence.

3. Know how to use the tools of oral communication—organization, words, tones, actions, persuasion—and know the standards of performance that the audience expects you to meet.

4. Prepare every talk thoroughly. Never slight preparation. You cannot expect to develop skill in delivery until you have mastered your ideas. It is not enough to know the subject. You must master thoroughly the particular sequence of the ideas that you want to share. You should have them so well in hand that you could repeat them as readily as you can count to ten.

5. Welcome helpful, constructive criticisms from your instructor and fellow students. Criticisms are invaluable. You can't see yourself objectively as they can. Once they point out your needs, attack them systematically. Progress can be fairly rapid when suggestions are followed by intelligent application.

6. Seek outside opportunities to speak. Classroom speaking is a laboratory experiment. Your audience has not assembled because you are to speak on a subject of special interest to them. Further, for some time at least they will be more interested in your skill than in the content of your talk. In spite of the seemingly artificial situation the classroom provides, it is the acid test as to whether or not you can interest an audience. If some day after you have given a talk, your contemporaries comment that they were so interested in what you said that they forgot to observe your technique, you can be quite sure that your skill has reached a point of real maturity. In the classroom you have also the opportunity to experiment with your style or methods of presentation. Should your listeners not approve, there is no great loss. If you tried the same experiment in business and it failed, the experience might be quite costly. Nevertheless, seek speaking experiences outside your classroom. Be a chairman of a committee or seek an office in a social organization.

7. Stay with your speech work until you have mastered it to the point where it is a serviceable tool. Don't let up on your preparation when you begin to feel a fair degree of ease before an audience. You are still in the first stage of psychological development. For analysis purposes, development may be considered as occurring in three stages:

Stage 1—*Release*. In this stage you learn to forget self, overcome inhibitions, eliminate mannerisms, and begin to get the feel of the tools and the situation. Mind, body, and voice begin to coordinate.

Stage 2—*Confidence*. In this stage you begin to get a stronger sense of control over yourself. You approach the platform with little doubt or fear. You can think on your feet. You know how to organize a logical talk and you can deliver it in a manner that meets the general approval of your instructor and contemporaries. But you still need to give conscious attention to the handling of your tools to be sure that you are handling them correctly.

Stage 3—*Persuasion*. In this stage you use your tools without conscious attention. Skill has been attained. It is part of you. Self no longer bothers you. Your whole attention is devoted to the accomplishment of your purpose.

Confidence is your personal goal. It is normal to have feelings of uncertainty as to your ability and how you will compare with your contemporaries. You can acquire confidence and even the ability to persuade if you resolve to look forward eagerly to sharing your message. Forget self, conquer fear, and concentrate on your purpose. Know how to use the tools of oral communication and understand your standards of performance. Prepare thoroughly. Welcome and apply criticism. Seek outside opportunities to speak, and practice until you have mastered platform communication to the point where it is a serviceable tool. The secret of confidence is knowing what is right and then doing it immediately.

SUGGESTED ASSIGNMENTS

General Suggestion

Use personal experiences so that you will not need to be too concerned about your ability to recall ideas.

1. Relate briefly your autobiography.
2. Tell about an unusual humorous or serious experience you have had.
3. Tell why you decided to take a course in speech communication.
4. Tell why you decided to attend your present college or university.
5. Tell about an interesting person you have met or known.

6. Narrate a short story, play, book, or motion picture that you have enjoyed recently.
7. Narrate a tall tale, legend, fable, or myth.
8. Discuss a superstition or custom of some tribe or locality.
9. Relate an athletic contest in which you participated or which you enjoyed as a spectator.
10. Narrate the highlights of a trip or experience that you have enjoyed, such as camping, hiking, skiing, fishing, or sightseeing.

CHAPTER 21

Audience Standards of Platform Communication and Their Development

Down through the ages human beings have judged speakers by an unwritten set of standards of performance. We of the twentieth century do likewise—and the generations that follow us will do the same.

Each generation varies its standards slightly to conform with the thinking and mode of the day. Today we are in a streamlined, informal era. Our speaking is simple, conversational, direct, brief, free from affectation, and bodily action is conservative. The past generation indulged in flowery speech, the tremulo tone, sweeping gestures, and formality. Not that all persons adopted that style, but it was part of the mode. Some have always held to the fundamentals regardless of transitory changes.

It is important to remember that skill in organization, and in the techniques of voice, body, and words never should be considered a substitute for a worth-while message. The message is the reason or cause for speaking, while the skill of organization and delivery is only a means. The acceptance of your message, however, may rest upon your skill or lack of it. But to re-emphasize, means may not be substituted for cause.

The accepted audience standards of communication which follow are detailed to assist in your systematic attack on your individual problems of communication. Let them serve as a guide. Do not let the large number of individual points frighten you. You have mastered many of them already; some you will be able to adopt just by the fact that they have been called to your attention; others you will need to work on diligently.

As a nation we are reconsidering our standards. In a way we are in the youth of a new age of oral communication. We talk around the world with greater ease and clearer reception than did primitive man from hut to hut or cave to cave. Our standards are meeting daily with standards held by representatives of different nations. Our lack of

effectiveness at times is making us wonder whether our standards or our approach need to be modified.

At home we are becoming more aware of standards of performance. The radio and the talking pictures are accustoming us to use of greater skill. Not that all we see and hear is commendable and worthy of adoption, but by and large the participants are trained in the skill of verbal, vocal, and physical expression. We now expect skill and if we do not get it our interest is withdrawn.

In business, we look to our associates in daily conversation and conference and they expect of us high performance standards. Skill in speaking is impressive; it is convincing when combined with a worthwhile message.

Use the standards as a check list. Your instructor and classmates will help you to determine your needs. Once you have reduced the list to those needing special attention, you can attack them systematically and be on your way to acquiring better skill.

Your rate of progress is entirely up to you. The experience of those who are now skillful and who once thought it impossible to stand before a group and communicate effectively is ample proof that skill can be acquired. You can do as well as others have done. Make up your mind to master the skill of oral communication, determine your particular needs, and then apply yourself daily to practice until you reach the standards. During your college term you may not acquire the degree of skill that you would like, but you will have laid a firm foundation for future progress.

The standards the audience expects you to meet pertain to your message, to you yourself as a man, to your manner of delivery, to your appearance, to your actions, to your voice, and to your words. The degree to which you meet these standards will determine the degree to which you will win the approval of your audience. The greater their approval the better your chance of accomplishing your purposes.

THE MESSAGE

The standard

The audience expects the speaker's message to be worth-while, grounded in personal experience, well organized, and interesting.

The listeners expect that the message will have particular meaning for them; that it will be worth their time; that it will give them new information, clarify something on which they are confused, present a new approach or interpretation, offer a solution on a perplexing problem, make them aware of a danger or probable loss, show them how to

do something, tell them how to improve, or help them to take advantage of an opportunity. The audience expects that the message and point of view will be as announced. It is irritating to make special arrangements to hear a speaker on a certain subject and then find that he has changed his topic or will speak from a different point of view. Every speaker has a responsibility to study his subject and his audience so that he may bring a message of new interest or new value and be able to relate it so that it will be vital to the particular audience.

The message that is rooted in the personal experience of a man of rich background is the one that appeals. His message is individual and original. The listeners can get it from no one else. It may be of some interest to hear a man who has his information second or third hand but the message of the man who has had the experience is the one which people like to hear. His message is a part of him and his re-realization of the experience at the time of delivery tells and stands for much more than his words alone suggest. How dull is the message of the man who brings us the summary of an encyclopedia topic. He talks in generalities. His talk is like a skeleton. It lacks the element of life which experience alone can give. Do not hesitate to ground your message in personal experience for fear that it will appear egotistical. Egotism is not in the message. If it is present it is in the man who delivers it.

The organization must be as easy to follow as a road map. The theme should be stated clearly or be so indicated that the listeners know the general direction in which the talk will advance. The stages of the journey should be made clear as the talk progresses. If the speaker is discussing a problem, the listeners have the right to expect him to state his problem clearly, investigate it carefully, and present all the facts so that they can arrive at their own decision or so that the decision he offers will sound reasonable. His conclusions must be warranted by the data that he presents. He cannot expect them to accept his decision and follow his plan of action if they are not convinced of the soundness of his judgment. Therefore, the speaker must take pains to organize the material logically and support the arguments and decisions with facts. There is no excuse for illogical arrangement of material.

The material used in the message must not only be logical but it must hold the attention and interest of the listeners throughout as the talk moves progressively to its objective. The message can be developed by following the suggestions made in the first paragraph. Further, interest can be held by talking about things which the listeners have experienced with their senses, by stirring emotions which they have felt, and by stimulating the hopes, aspirations, and values

which they consider important. Psychology has proved that visual perceptions are more dynamic than auditory perceptions; that objects and colored pictures are more effective than words; that positive ideas are better than negative ones; that a single thing which gets the whole attention has more power of suggestion than a series of things; that stories of real people are superior to abstract discussions of principles. These findings can be used to great advantage.

Intense interest can often be aroused by presenting conflicts between immediate ends and future ends, or selfish against altruistic ends, or conflicts of old beliefs, attitudes, and ways of doing things against proposed changes. The facts which are presented as supporting data must give an impression greater than the facts themselves if the interest of the audience is to be held. They must create an attitude or state of mind which stimulates the imagination.

A message that will meet the standard of worthwhileness, of being grounded in personal experience, of being well organized and interesting can be developed, but it requires a knowledge of what kind of message has meaning for a particular audience, engaging in activities which will yield personal experiences of audience value, careful preparation of materials, and a knowledge and application of the findings of psychology relative to holding attention and interest.

THE MAN

The standard

The audience expects the speaker to impress them as a man of highest character, good scholarship, wholesome personality, and identified with the needs of his fellowman.

The audience expects the speaker to consider the importance of his message as the primary reason for addressing them. They do not want to feel that he is parading his ego to the point where it interferes with the communication of the message. Attitudes of superiority, flippancy, or sarcasm always detract from the effectiveness of the message. The audience also expects him to show respect for both his material and his purpose. The man who talks disparagingly of his material has no right to discuss it; and, if it is of such insignificance, he has no right to take the time of the audience to listen to it.

The man is the medium for the message, and when he tries to make himself more important than his message he has temporarily forgotten the function of communication. It is human that every speaker should want to know whether or not he did well. Approval is essential to the maintenance and building of confidence. It can spur him on to deliver

more effective messages. If he receives such comments as, "Your message clarified several things in my thinking," or "You gave me a new conception of the importance of . . . ," or "You helped me to decide what is and what is not important," or "I am convinced that it is better for me to . . . ," then he knows that he, the man, is not interfering with the message but is an effective medium. A speaker should always take his message and purpose seriously but should never take himself too seriously. The message is primary.

Character is basic in a man. The man who lacks it cannot help but demonstrate that lack as he reveals his ideas, points of view, and opinions. The audience expects each speaker to impress them as a man of honesty, sincerity, and as having a high sense of ethics. It expects him to be a man of his word—"to say what he means and mean what he says"; that he is not one who will compromise with principle in the face of opposition; that he will have strong, vital convictions based on full knowledge of the facts, and that he is willing to fight for those convictions; that he will not be the type of man who in discussing controversial situations condemns the points of view of others but is afraid to take a stand himself; that he will be tolerant but not to the degree where he accedes to any demand just to get along or to avoid a head-on clash as to principles; that he will confine his opposition to an attack on the issue and not to an attack on the personality of the opposition—unless the latter is a separate issue that should be brought out into the open; that he will respect the opinion of those who honestly disagree with him.

An audience unconsciously grants leadership to a speaker but he must merit it or they will soon lose faith in his ability to lead. It expects him not to be an opportunist but a man of vision, a man who can distinguish the chaff from the wheat, a man who can see the end values to be gained by adherence to moral principles.

Character cannot be put on as a cloak when the speaker steps before his audience. Character is the result of living or not living according to the established moral and ethical codes of society. The audience will make allowances for the man who is not brilliant, but it will not make allowances for the man whom they believe to be fundamentally dishonest, deceitful, or selfishly ruthless. The speaker who speaks straight from the shoulder, who does not camouflage the gravity of a situation, and who faces facts with his audience wins and holds respect that is lasting. The acceptance of the message by the audience is as dependent upon the character of the man who presents it as it is upon the facts that he presents. Effectiveness is dependent upon character.

The audience expects good scholarship. It looks forward to hearing

the man who is thorough in his thinking, who has a breadth of knowledge, who can see his subject in perspective, who can distinguish fact from opinion, who bases his judgments on facts, experience, and principles, who withholds judgments until he knows the facts, and who is not guilty of overstatement or contradictions. Scholarship is a major key to building worthwhile messages. It must become a habit with a speaker.

Your preparation for the messages that you will deliver in business ten years from now has already begun. Your college courses are providing a background of facts and knowledge which must serve as the bases of your future thinking. Most of all, college education teaches one how to think—a basic requirement for effective speech organization. You are acquiring the habit of an inquiring mind and how to think critically and objectively. You are developing your powers to observe, to understand the relation of the part to the whole, to recognize the operation of the law of cause and effect, to distinguish between symptom and cause, to separate fact from opinion, to investigate thoroughly before arriving at a conclusion, and to understand human motives and the patterns of human response. In all of these experiences you are learning to use the scientific method of thinking which is also the basic method of thinking in speech preparation. You are becoming acquainted with sources so that you will know where to find information. Get into the habit of good scholarship now. It requires time but it will yield rich satisfactions. Prepare yourself so that you will have something worth-while to give. There is no substitute for experience and good scholarship.

The audience expects the speaker to be a man of wholesome personality. As was stated earlier, the speaker is automatically granted a position of leadership, and wholesome personality is one of the attributes of leadership which it expects to find in him. It expects him to have an optimistic outlook on life. Even though his message be one of gravity, nevertheless he is expected to believe that the situation is not without hope and that it can be settled by intelligent handling. America is basically an optimistic country and people expect expressions of hope even when conditions are dark.

They expect him, too, to be emotionally poised within himself. An audience has little faith in a man who is disorganized, confused, and mastered by the situation. Extroversion is expected of him at least to the degree of ambiversion. They want to feel that he is confident, that he has faith in himself, that he is social, and that he is capable of doing what he expects his audience to do. But the audience does not want extreme extroversion accompanied by ruthlessness, overaggressiveness, or dictatorialism.

The audience expects him to be sincere and earnest in his purpose and to enjoy sharing his message with them; that he will not give the impression that he does not care whether or not he speaks to them; that he will not have the air of doing them a favor by speaking, or of speaking only because he could not avoid accepting the invitation and that he is anxious to have it over with as soon as possible.

He is also expected to have a refined sense of humor and the ability to intersperse it in his message. He is expected to be big enough to be free from petty prejudices.

Personality is dynamic and therefore bears constant watching. It is very easy in the course of everyday experiences to develop an attitude of pessimism, to mistrust others, to desire to dominate, to want to be the center of attention, to become selfish, to be sarcastic without being aware of the change in our personalities. Nevertheless, the audience will detect these attitudes and will not approve of them. They may not be able to define why they do not approve of the personality of the speaker but they sense it and their response is negative. A wholesome personality is winning, refreshing, and merits the confidence of the audience.

The audience expects the speaker to be in sincere sympathy with their interests, aims, needs, motives, and values; to like people genuinely not as an abstraction but in life; to take the time to understand their problems, find out what their hopes, aspirations, and goals are and help them to evaluate them and to realize those which will advance them. Interest in one's fellowman will bring a sympathy, warmth, and common touch into the delivery that will arouse the same response in the listeners. It is acquired by living with people, by seeing life from their point of view, by enjoying their successes, and understanding their trials. Such a relationship builds a common bond of understanding, respect, and appreciation—a feeling of oneness of interest and purpose. See the good in your fellowman. This is the springboard to being liked by him. Sincere identification with the needs of one's fellowmen results in a vital message and welds the audience to the speaker.

THE DELIVERY

The standard

The audience expects the speaker to approach the job of platform communication in a businesslike manner, to be direct yet informal, responsive to his message, responsive to his audience, and master of his techniques.

The audience expects the speaker to have a friendly, confident, businesslike manner which commands attention, forecasts that he is in command of himself and the situation, that he has a goal in mind, and

that he has something worthwhile to say. The audience does not want him to approach it in an apathetic, aloof, flippant, egotistical, apologetic, domineering, or aimless manner. It expects him to direct his message straight to them in a conversational style and that he will come to grips with his theme early in his delivery and speak with the assurance that he knows what he is talking about and what he wishes to accomplish; that he will not direct his message into space above the audience, or to a post, or to the floor, or to his notes, or to just one person in the audience; that his style will not be elocutionary, bombastic, or overly studied.

It is expected that he will deliver his message with an unassuming, disarming, and winning informality which impresses favorably without effort; that he will be his natural self; that he will not struggle to give the impression of being at ease by resorting to ridicule, sarcasm, wise-cracking, or by taking noticeably informal positions for the purpose of expressing greater ease than he is experiencing.

The audience expects that he will be so interested in his ideas that his whole being—mind, body, and spirit—will participate in his communication; that he will not appear apathetic by standing with a military erectness or with a changeless expression, or by speaking in a monotonous voice.

Responsiveness to the audience is also expected of the speaker. The audience expects that he will not talk at, or down to them; that he will sense their enjoyment, their interests, or their concern about his ideas.

He is expected to be master of the techniques of organization, voice, body control, and vocabulary. But he is expected to use these only as mediums to complement the message and not to appear more important than the message. The message and the purpose must be primary.

Manner of delivery can be developed by a clear understanding of the standards and by constant, intelligent application in the direction of the standards. Constant application cannot be overstressed. Practice more than anything else is necessary to bring about an early emotional adjustment to public speaking. Until the speaker is emotionally free he cannot give much attention to the responses of the audience and to the accomplishment of his purpose.

Development is a process and oral communication is so involved that it is difficult to give thought to just one factor of development at a time. Fortunately, the individual can handle many factors at a time and make progress in all of them. Attention to the acquisition of a friendly, confident, businesslike approach that will command attention eliminates negative attitudes and unnecessary bodily activity at the

same time. Working for directness gets the speaker to center his attention on the audience. It takes the attention away from himself and soon he is free and can abandon himself to the spirit of his message and his purpose. Attention to the development of an unassuming, disarming informality helps to develop greater ease and interplay with the responses of the audience.

Mastery of the techniques is best acquired by following the helpful suggestions of an instructor and fellow classmates. Mastery of delivery appears at first to be most difficult because the emotions are intimately involved, but the struggle to acquire the standards is repaid many times over in the years ahead. Easy extroversion is developed over a period of time if effort is expended.

APPEARANCE

The standard

The audience expects the speaker to have reasonably good posture, appear alert, carry himself well, and to wear clothes fitting to the occasion.

The audience expects the speaker to stand with reasonable and easy erectness. Good posture is a sign of good health and good habits. A healthy, energetic, alert individual commands more attention and respect than one who lets his chest droop and his abdomen protrude, and appears low in energy. Poor posture is associated with careless physical and mental habits.

The audience likes to see a man who moves and carries himself well on the platform. He shows that he is not only in command of his physical movements but also his mental processes. He expresses emotional and physical poise. The audience wants him to have purpose in everything that he does and to do it skillfully and well.

It expects that the speaker will wear clothes that are fitting to the occasion. In most cases this will be business dress but perhaps tuxedo and even full dress on occasion. His clothes should be adjusted before he rises to speak. Any adjusting of coat, tie, or other part of clothing directs attention to the accompanying movement and takes it away from the opening words.

Every speaker should make it a point to seek criticism on his posture and general impression of alertness. We cannot see ourselves or know the impression we make on other people by some attitude of posture or type of movement of which we may not even be aware. Ask yourself such questions as the following: "Do I carry my chest well?" "Is my head tilted to the left or right?" "Do I walk and move feet first?" "Does my body lean to one side?" It may be that more exercise or corrective

exercises are needed. Posture can be improved with not too much effort. Good muscle tone which is the result of exercise gives the body an expression of well being, alertness, and purpose.

Good posture is always essential, but it is especially important to anyone who intends to speak before an audience regularly. Stand with your weight balanced over the arches or slightly forward over the balls of the feet. If you stand with the weight over one foot, be sure that a straight line dropped from the notch at the top of the sternum would fall directly over the center of the foot bearing the weight. This is your freest position and enables you to move easily. Every movement is observed by the audience and affects your message. Good appearance is not primary but the fact that the audience observes it throughout the entire talk is reason enough that it should be given thought and attention.

THE ACTIONS

The standard

The audience expects the actions to befit the sex of the speaker, to add clearness, strength, and emphasis to the message, to mark transitions of thought, to be proportionate in nature, size and intensity to the thought and situation, and that the speaker will be free of mannerisms.

Action is the expression of the body as a whole. It manifests the speaker's poise, assimilation of his ideas, and the degree to which his purpose has interested him. If he is not vitally interested in what he is presenting, the audience will lose interest in his subject.

Communication is not only an auditory process. It is visual as well and since action is a universal language, it can strengthen the message or weaken it. A speaker who paces up and down the platform, who seldom looks at the audience, who opens and buttons his coat or vest repeatedly, who jingles his coins continuously, or who rocks back and forth unceasingly distracts attention by these extraneous movements and interferes with the communication of his message.

The audience expects first that the expressive actions will be fitting to the sex of the speaker. A man is expected to use strong, direct, purposeful actions. All actions should be the natural, normal, dynamic expressions of an individual who is vital in thought and feeling. They should add clearness, strength, and emphasis and not be random, aimless movements which detract rather than complement.

Actions should mark transitions of thought. This may be accomplished by a step forward, backward, or to the side. It may be a movement of the arm or hand, or change of facial expression.

The total activity response of the body differs with the personality of the speaker. Some individuals are naturally more emotional than others and express themselves with more bodily action. In general, an audience enjoys hearing a man who is energetic but who is under control. Speakers sometimes over-energize bodily action to substitute for preparation or to emphasize the importance of the message as a whole. Overactivity does not make an unimportant message important. Overactivity throughout the delivery is not a means of emphasis but is actually monotonous. When everything is over-energized there is no emphasis. "That which is important, does not need to be made important," is an old maxim in the expressive arts.

Expressive actions of the arms and hands, more commonly called gestures, should be proportionate in nature, size, and intensity to the thought and situation. The larger the audience the larger the gestures may be. In fact, if a gesture is too small before a large audience, it may be difficult to see. Persuasive material because of its emotional content is usually accompanied by more activity than is informative material. Emotion manifests itself in outward motion.

Progress in expressive action is best made under the guidance of your instructor. You cannot see yourself as you appear to others; therefore, suggestions from your instructor are invaluable. You will also learn much by observing the actions of your fellow students. Be on the lookout for mannerisms both in yourself and others. All bodily expressions must be expressions of the particular message you are putting across.

Expressive actions of the arms and hands may give you as a beginner considerable difficulty. The important point is that they be freed of any tension, and then if the need occurs to emphasize, describe, or clarify a point by an expressive gesture, you will be able to do so easily. First, practice relaxation of the hands and arms, and follow this by practicing expressive gestures in response to various thoughts and emotions. After this is done, you will be free and will respond naturally to the situation, to the message, and to every thought and emotion.

Expressive actions of the arms and hands are basically of two types—descriptive and functional. Descriptive are those which show or demonstrate size, shape, texture, weight, line, movement, and force. Illustrate these for yourself: compare a box one foot square with one three feet square; show the shape of a vase, a giant mushroom, or the body of an airplane; indicate the difference in texture between cotton and steel; demonstrate the energy needed in lifting a one-pound weight against a fifty-pound weight; indicate the streamline of a new car or the line of movement of an airplane going into a tailspin; tell and show

how to throw a basketball, or a javelin; illustrate pulling in a tug-of-war or swinging a sledge hammer. All such movements add clarity to the thought. These are transitory expressions.

The functional actions of the hand also involve the arm and are expressive of attitudes. The more conventional functions used are termed *define, indicate, warn, accuse, acquire, hold, deny, reject, reveal,* and *support.* In *define,* the hand and forearm are lifted, the hand is turned with the side down and the movement is up and down in the vertical position. The index finger is the dominant finger and is straight while the others are partially open in their normal position. In *indicate, warn,* and *accuse* the index finger is the dominant finger also. *Acquire* and *hold* mean drawing something towards you and possessing it. *Deny* is a side to side movement with the palm down. *Reject* is a single movement to the side with the palm turned away from the body as though you were pushing something to the side because it held no further interest. In *reveal,* the palm is turned upward and the arm and hand extended as though you were saying, "I am concealing nothing." Often both hands and arms are used. In *support,* the palm is turned up with the hand or hands elevated slightly. It is used in an appeal like, "Let us all support to the best of our ability the Community Fund."

Expressive actions should be used even though the speaker may not need them. If they are not needed for clearness they at least afford the audience eye relief. Some speakers, to be sure, use little movement and yet hold their audiences well. They do it by sheer power of thought or by allowing their whole organism to feel the thought and emotion deeply without expressing it in surface movements. Intense action is there, under control. It expresses itself in an attitude rather than in gestures.

In conclusion, actions are the dynamic expression of an individual who is vital in his thinking and feeling. Actions are not restricted to the arms and hands; they involve the entire body. The entire being must be simultaneously alive to express the deep feelings that have been aroused within the speaker. Actions are a major form of holding attention and interest. The visual aspect of speaking is so important that to neglect it is to neglect one of the three fundamental means of expression—words, tones, and actions. Every action that does not add to the thought detracts. Every action must fit the speaker. Some speakers use more actions than others but it is good practice for all to use a moderate amount. The energy of the actions must be proportionate to the nature, size, and intensity of the thought and situation. Over-energizing is not a substitute for good preparation or a worthwhile message. Manner-

isms, especially repetition of the same mannerisms, are not only annoying but interfere with the communication of the message.

THE VOICE

The standard

The audience expects a voice that is easy to hear, natural, well-pitched, and pleasant; and speaking habits that embody an interesting change of rate, acceptable pronunciation, and good conversational style which includes changes of pitch, inflection, well-timed pauses, color, progression and unit phrasing.

Volume

The message must be heard in order to be understood. Practically speaking, it is useless to talk if the listeners cannot hear. Some speakers deliberately use a technique of low volume on the basis that if the listeners must strain to hear they will give better attention. Experience shows this to be an inconsiderate and unsatisfactory technique. Every person in the room should be able to hear in comfortable attention. The voice that fills the room easily is impressive.

Volume in its own right is a strong means of holding attention. This is borne out by the fact that if a sound louder than the voice of the speaker comes into the room at the time he is speaking, listeners are forced to give primary attention to it. They have no choice. It forces itself upon their auditory sense. When the volume of the voice is inadequate, attention wanes and shifts to the thoughts occurring in the stream of consciousness. On the other hand, when volume is too great it is wearing and gives the impression that the speaker is speaking at his audience rather than with his audience.

Volume can be used as a means of emphasis but if the volume is too great throughout, the speaker has no emphasis. Emphasis occurs only through changes of volume and low volume may be just as emphatic as high volume. Changes in volume may never be conscious manipulations like the turning on and off of a faucet. They must be the result of evaluation by the speaker of the inherent thought and purpose of the message. Plan your sequence of ideas in a value order so that the organization will require changes of volume.

Naturalness

The audience expects a voice that is natural. To affect a tone of voice for the platform is to invite a negative response. In fact, it guarantees it. No one likes an artificial voice. Even the individual who affects one

does not like the "put on" voice in others. Its use is a mark of immaturity. It shows that we are not satisfied with ourselves and that we are taking the easiest way to suggest that we are something other—presumably better—than we are. Nothing wins like sincerity.

Well-pitched Voice

A well-pitched voice is easy to listen to and requires much less effort on the part of the speaker. The well-pitched voice operates in the middle range of each person's speaking voice. In general, the middle range comprises about four to six notes. An octave to an octave and a half is about the range of the average person's voice and he strains when he approaches either the upper or lower limit. Speakers and singers who have developed their range may have use of well over two octaves. The average speaker needs only a serviceable range, and flexibility within an octave is sufficient and desirable.

Tension, emotion, and the desire to increase the volume may cause the beginning speaker to start his talk in the upper part of his range. When the voice is under strain both speaker and audience are uncomfortable. If you have similar difficulty, begin slowly and in the lower half of your range. It will help you to keep control over your voice until your emotion subsides.

Become acquainted with your voice. Test it out for volume in a large room. Know what you can and cannot do with it easily. Test it for pitch range. The piano can be a helpful aid. In general, male voices operate below middle C, and female voices a little below and above. Start with a song vocalization using any simple sound combination (e.g., ha, ha) in your easiest tone. Do it several times until you have definitely established it. Then locate it on the scale of the piano. Next, work down the scale until you begin to feel that it is uncomfortable; then work up until it becomes uncomfortable. This will establish your present easy range. Practice every day until you extend the range both higher and lower. Vocal practice is muscular exercise in part and facility can be developed as in any other muscular exercise. Somehow, one hesitates to practice voice exercises. One fears the reactions of those who might hear him. This is nonsense. You need to forget your pride and determine that you want to improve the voice, and that certain calisthenics are just as necessary as if you were training for track or football. Your easiest speaking tone will be about two notes below the song note that you can produce with greatest ease. In addition to exercise sounds, use words; also, use phrases that require the alternation of high and low notes. Learn to speak a phrase in your low range, middle range, and high range just to train your ear to the differen

pitches and to give you a sense of conscious control over them. Ear training is the first step to voice improvement.

Improvement in pitch level can be tested periodically by making voice recordings. The first recording is quite shocking upon the first playback because the voice sounds quite different from the one the speaker hears. An individual hears his own voice as the sound vibrations come to the inner ear through the medium of bone and muscle. Other people hear the voice as it comes to them through the medium of air. It is the medium through which the voice passes that accounts for the difference. After hearing the recording played back six or eight times, our puzzlement subsides and we can analyze the recording critically. Pronunciations, choice of words, and broken phrasing can be ascertained on the first and second playback. Pitch analysis takes more time. It is not so easy to observe as the former. In speaking, so much attention is given to thought that we do not have time to analyze the quality of tone or pitch. Periodic voice recordings are an objective means by which to watch progress.

Resonance

A resonant tone is a pleasant tone; the fuller the resonance, the more pleasant to the ear. When you strike a note on the piano and hold the key down you hear first the primary tone and then the secondary vibrations or overtones. It is the resounding of the vibrations within the instrument that is resonance. Production of tone in the human body is quite similar. As the air in the lungs is called upon to produce sound, it is set into vibration by the vocal bands. This vibration, once produced, is prolonged as it is transmitted to the chest and head cavities. This is vocal resonance. The size and shape of the cavities determine the resonance. However, if there is constriction anywhere in the vocal mechanism, resonance cannot function fully. You can test resonance quickly by placing one hand on the chest and the other on the top of the head while prolonging a vowel sound, as *o*. If you have tried this, you have felt the vibrations not only as they were produced in the chest, oral, and nasal cavities but as they were transmitted through bone and muscle.

The basis of a good voice rests structurally with a good set of vocal bands and good resonating chambers. The normal individual can do much to use both to greater advantage by developing freedom and by responding with the whole personality to every thought and emotion. In many people, resonance is affected as much if not more by attitudes than by inherent structure. Fear, hate, and defensiveness constrict; affection, helpfulness, and respect free the resonating mechanism.

Breathing

Breath is the stuff of which tone is made. Anyone who wishes to speak before groups must give attention to breathing. If sufficient breath is not carried in the lungs, volume must be produced by exaggerated muscular force. This is very wearing on the organism and usually results in an irritation of the vocal bands. Develop your breath capacity by regular physical exercises and by deep breathing exercises. The latter alone is somewhat dangerous because untrained students tend to push and force the breathing organs and thereby strain them. In the early stages breathing exercises should be done under the supervision of your instructor so that you will not strain yourself or fall into the habit of manipulating the voice by pushing the diaphragm. Reading aloud in volume somewhat greater than you normally use is excellent practice. Lengthen the vowel sounds. Counting to thirty and above on one breath will aid in developing control of the air stream. When the counting gets to the point of strain, stop and take another breath. Over a period of time your control will improve considerably.

Breathing for speech should not be accomplished by elevating the chest as is recommended in gymnasium work where strength is the objective. In breathing for speech the major noticeable expansion takes place in the region of the solar plexus with expansion also occurring at the sides and back of the body.

The incoming air for speech is taken in through the mouth and not through the nose as is done in normal breathing. Speech requires that air be taken in quickly and it cannot be taken in rapidly enough through the nasal passages alone. The outgoing air is controlled by the gradual release of the diaphragm and other inspiratory muscles and the contraction of the muscles of exhalation.

Rate

Rate of speaking is a much more important factor in holding attention than it has been credited with being. While the exact number of words per minute cannot be given, we do know that when an individual speaks below a hundred and twenty-five words per minute he is in danger of losing the attention of his audience.

Individuals vary in average rate between a hundred and twenty and a hundred and sixty words per minute. Some speak slower and others faster. The size of the audience influences rate. Before a large audience without the aid of a loud speaker system it is necessary to prolong the vowel sounds to get carrying power. This may slow down the rate to one hundred words per minute. If the topic is important enough the

listeners will be held by its significance. If the topic is not vital to the audience, the slow rate will permit their own streams of consciousness to function. Use a loud speaker system whenever it is available. It saves you a lot of wear and tear and enables you to speak at a faster rate.

Why is rate a factor of interest? Ideas must come to the listeners fast enough to keep their conscious minds busy and to prevent the stream of consciousness from functioning. Rate is influenced by the nature of the material and by the listeners' ability to comprehend. The more familiar the audience is with the material the faster the rate can be, and vice versa.

The speaker is often his own most difficult problem in trying to develop an interesting rate. Each person has what might be called an individual activity rate. Some individuals walk fast, work fast, and talk fast; others walk slowly, work slowly, and talk slowly; and the majority of us are somewhere in between. Our activity rate is so much a part of us that change in it is a major adjustment of personality. But change can be accomplished by realizing our need and applying ourselves to the correction.

Rate is often slow because of broken phrasing. This requires a new mental habit. Rate may also be irregular, resulting in an unrhythmic pattern because the individual's mind produces ideas faster than he can handle them. He starts on one idea and before he has finished he drops it and starts on another. Or his rate may be irregular because his speech rate is faster than the mind can produce thoughts and consequently he has silent periods while he waits for the mind to catch up. The rate of thinking and the rate of speaking must be coordinated. Careful preparation of thoughts beforehand and holding to their orderly presentation is the answer.

Rate for its own sake should not be the goal. The speaker who manipulates it usually invites a negative audience response. An interesting rate is a varying rate. Just as volume should change so also should rate change. The change of rate should be inherent in the material. Rate should be a result and not a cause. Maintaining a rate of about a hundred and forty words per minute means that at times the speaker will speak at the rate of a hundred and twenty words per minute and at other times a hundred and thirty, a hundred and forty, a hundred and fifty, or a hundred and sixty. A sentence of importance may even be spoken at seventy-five words per minute. Variation is the secret of interest.

A speaker who maintained a steady rate of a hundred and seventy-five words per minute would become very monotonous after about five

or ten minutes. When the impulses of sound come to the brain at the same rate, or volume or pitch for that matter, the mind becomes accustomed to the pattern and no longer is held actively. Sameness produces the same effect as a lullaby—and lullabying is a mother's prerogative, not a speaker's.

A slow rate may hold attention if the material is vital enough or if the force of the speaker's personality is strong enough. This was ably demonstrated by the late Franklin Delano Roosevelt, who in his fireside chats did not average much above a hundred and fifteen words per minute. But he spoke only when the issue was momentous, or he made it so; in addition, he was a master of the techniques of persuasion as well as of speech.

Learn what your present rate of speaking is and then determine what changes, if any, need to be made. Make a voice recording and count your words. Observe whether you speak at the same rate or if you have variations. A good average rate that does not embody variations will not hold interest long. Next, develop conscious control over your rate. Select a passage of good literature from a dramatic play, essay, or speech. Take an interesting passage of two hundred and twenty-five words and mark it at every twenty-fifth word beginning with the hundredth word. Then read at your average rate for one minute. Do it several times until you establish what you would consider your average rate. Get the psychological feel of the rate. Let us suppose that it is a hundred and fifty words per minute. Then try a hundred and twenty-five words until it takes you exactly one minute to do it. Repeat it until you get the psychological feel of a hundred and twenty-five. Then progress to the other rates. Practice will give you a conscious control over your rate of speaking, which previously was automatic. After you have mastered control on test material begin to apply it in your daily conversation. Soon rate in response to your evaluation of the ideas and the listeners' ability to comprehend it, will become automatic and you will have a more interesting rate than before. Your speech rate is important. Acquire control of this important tool and it will serve you well.

A word should be said about the rate at which you open your talk before a new audience. In general speak somewhat slower than normal until the audience becomes accustomed to your pronunciation and speech melody. It takes time for the ear of the audience to adjust itself to your manner of speaking. This is especially important if you have an accent or are speaking in a section of the country other than the one native to you.

Enunciation and Pronunciation

Words in order to be understood must be enunciated clearly and pronounced accurately. Enunciation means giving the proper value to the sounds of each syllable. Words are made up of consonants and vowels. Consonants are interrupted sounds and vowels are uninterrupted sounds. Consonants correspond to well-fitting husks of kernels of grain, and vowels correspond to the kernels themselves. Both sounds are formed by positions of the lips, teeth, and tongue, and by the shape of the oral cavity. Most of the consonant sounds are made by lips, teeth, and tip of tongue. This is a decided advantage since it helps to project the sounds easily. Consonants require clean cut contacts, and vowels must be given full value.

Poor enunciation is often the result of careless habits. Lazy lips, lazy tongue, clenched teeth, and speaking out of the side of the mouth are a few of the more common careless habits. Negative attitudes of mind also result in poor enunciation. Sarcasm, sophisticated superiority, ridicule, and pessimism tend to constrict the speech organs and prevent the giving of full value to each individual sound.

Some poor enunciation is the result of missing teeth, failure of the teeth to mesh properly, nasality, or cleft palate. Where this condition exists, dental and medical attention may be the proper solution. If the fundamental structures necessary for sound formation are deficient, enunciation will suffer proportionately. Some compensation can be made by reeducation under the guidance of a competent phonetician or speech correctionist.

Pronunciation of words should be the standard used by persons who are known to speak correctly. In general, this means the pronunciation found in a good dictionary. Affected pronunciation is always objectionable. Since pronunciation is on exhibition during the entire time that the speaker is before his audience it requires careful consideration. If you are careless of it, your audience may have less confidence in the accuracy of your material.

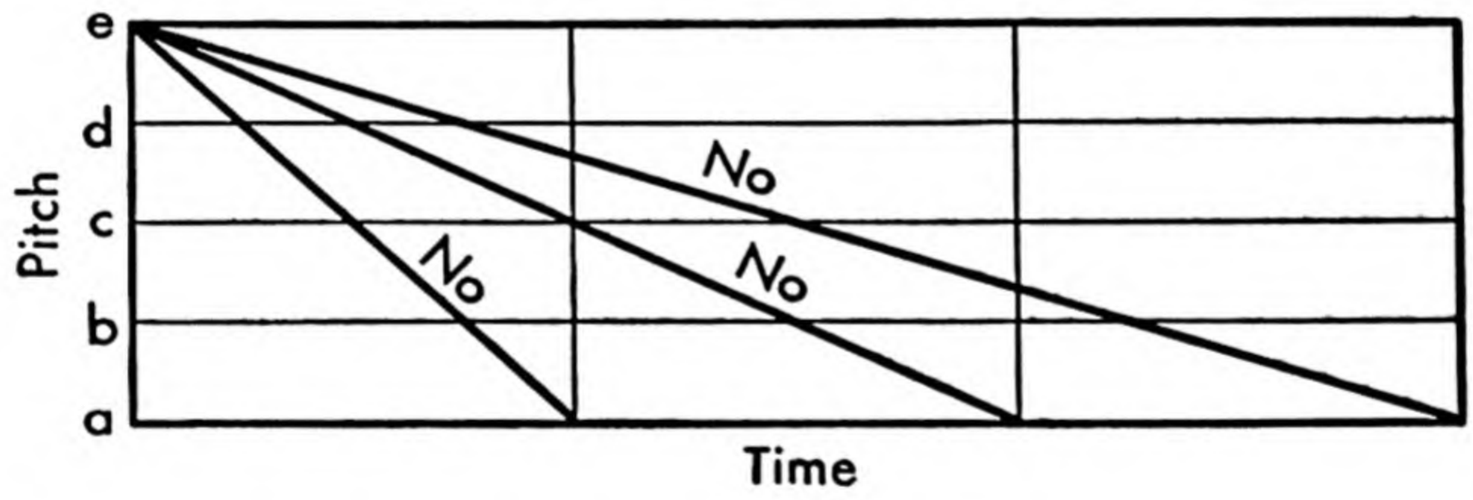
Conversational Style

Conversational style gives the delivery naturalness and a rhythm that is regular and pleasing. As used here this does not necessarily mean the speaker's usual style, but what is considered good conversational style. His own style may be deficient in changes of pitch, inflection, well-timed pauses, and the subtleties of tone contributed by an alert mind—the marks of good conversational style.

Pitch is defined theoretically as frequency of vibration. For practical purposes pitch is the variation in tone recognized by the ear. Frequency can be measured only by instruments. A marked change of pitch is termed a change of key, and occurs with a major change of thought or point of emphasis. It is the type of change that comes when the speaker moves from one point to another, or when one point is contrasted to another, or when the conclusion is given.

Changes of pitch occur between syllables, words, phrases, clauses, sentences, and paragraphs. When they do not occur or the changes are slight, delivery is monotonous.

Inflection is a change of pitch. It is a curve or bend of the voice. Modern texts sidestep its mention because it has been variously interpreted as the change that occurs on the vowel sound of the word, as the change that occurs between syllables, and as the change that occurs between words and phrases. It is important that all these changes occur, and that we term them secondary. This text, as a matter of choice, uses the term *inflection* as the change of pitch which occurs on the vowel of the word. The vowel sound of the stressed syllable of a word requires the longest inflection and the vowel sound of the stressed syllable of the emphatic word of a sentence is given the longest inflection of any word in the sentence. Thus, inflection is used as a major means of emphasis. Inflection has both pitch and time range. The following chart illustrates this with a single word.



To illustrate the use of inflection in a sentence say: *I* saw you. I *saw* you. I saw *you*.

Pauses fulfill two purposes. They give the speaker time to focus his attention on his thought before expressing it; and they give the listener time to come to attention before something important is to be said or time to absorb an important thought after it has been said. Pause should never be used just for the purpose of having a period of silence. Pauses should be purposeful.

Color is the emotional modulation of resonance. It is that characteristic which comes into the voice as a result of emotional feeling. It is not difficult to tell by the color of the voice when a person is angry,

sarcastic, disgusted, pleased, happy, eager, or bored. Our basic outlook on life also gives a permanent color to our voice.

Progression is the sense of movement toward a goal that you feel when the speaker is developing his theme. Without the element of progression the talk would seem to wander and would tend to monotony.

Unit phrasing is the speaking of the words that belong together as one unit. It is not the same as unit structure. The structure may be a unit but if in delivery the speaker halts between words that belong together, he violates the unity of the phrase.

Why is broken phrasing poor technique? First of all, it breaks the rhythm, which is irritating to the ear. When the phrase is broken, the listener attempts to finish it in his own mind, and then, if the speaker finishes it differently, the listener becomes confused. The next time the speaker halts, the listener just waits—and if it occurs too often he goes about his own thinking and no longer listens to the speaker. Unit phrasing is a strong form of holding the listener's attention.

In conclusion, the voice is the major means by which the message is conveyed to the audience. Adequate volume is the first requirement. Effectiveness is lost if the listeners cannot hear easily. The audience prefers a voice that is used naturally and one that is clear, warm, well pitched, and pleasant. Control of breath reduces the effort of speaking and gives the voice more carrying power. Rate is a much more important factor from a psychological point of view than has been supposed. In general a rate above a hundred and twenty-five words per minute is more certain of holding interest than a rate below. When the ideas come to the listener fast enough to keep his conscious mind busy, his stream of consciousness is kept from functioning or at least is controlled. Correction of rate is often a matter of changing the individual's fundamental activity rate, rate of thinking, or habitual rate of speaking. Enunciation and pronunciation must be clear and accurate and acceptable to the audience. Carelessness in either or both detracts from the effectiveness of the message. Conversational style gives informality and naturalness to delivery and variety to the melody pattern. Pause, change of pitch, inflection, tone color, and progression can be developed through technical exercises, by intensified thinking, and by feeling each individual thought and its relation to the entire subject. Unit phrasing leads the listeners smoothly through the development of the theme. Poor vocal habits are easier to observe in others than in ourselves, since we are almost unaware of our pattern of expression. Even after we recognize our poor habits, correction is difficult because habit patterns resist change.

THE WORDS

The standard

The audience expects the speaker to use words that reveal and not conceal meaning, i.e., specific words in preference to abstract; also, words that are brisk, active, accurate, and arranged in effective phrases and sentences.

Specialization is developing a problem in communication through words. As specialized knowledge increases, there is a growing danger that we shall understand one another less and less. Each specialized field builds up its own vocabulary and jargon. In order to meet mentally an individual in such a field we are almost compelled to know its vocabulary. All of us tend to use the words of our vocation so glibly that we forget that others may not be familiar with them. It isn't that others can't understand us but we speak in a vocabulary foreign to them. Each of us is embarrassed to keep on asking the other, "What do you mean?" and so we listen in half ignorance. For example, a biologist speaks of the process of food-making by green leaves and sunlight as photosynthesis; a psychologist defines the organs of eye, ear, skin, nose, and tongue as exteroceptors; and the graduates of barber colleges call themselves tonsorialists. We are going through a period of development in the realms of knowledge and skills in which each explored segment is building its own vocabulary. Consequently, we are developing a number of terms meaning the same thing.

Words are the tools of the speaker. It is important to bear in mind when using them that they are not things, or the thoughts in our minds. They are mere symbols by which we try to suggest our thoughts and feelings to others hoping that the symbols will arouse the same thoughts in them. Words have no meaning in and of themselves. A foreign word the meaning of which we do not know has no value for us. Likewise, such an English word has no value for us, unless perchance, we grasp a hazy understanding of it because of its surrounding context. At their best, words are inadequate attempts at suggesting what we wish to convey. Nevertheless, they have values greater than expressive actions because through them we can suggest or convey meaning beyond them, as was discussed in the introduction to this text.

What is the function of words? It is to reveal meaning—not to conceal it. This is not possible until the thought to be expressed is clear in our own minds. How often you have heard someone express himself and then say, "No, that isn't what I mean." We attempt to express many of our thoughts while they are still in the general impression stage. Expression cannot be accurate if thinking is not accurate. The attempt to

express helps us to clarify our thought. It brings our grasp of it out into the open and when we hear it, we recognize it as accurate or inaccurate. Clear, articulated thinking is basic to accuracy of expression. Words do not arise selectively in the mind until the idea is clear.

Whether or not a word will reveal meaning can be determined by asking, "Will the listeners interpret it as I have?" If you are in doubt, a substitute word, definition,' or background must be supplied. If the words that we use are not interpreted at least in line with our meaning, then it is better not to express them at all. At least we avoid the danger of confusing our audience. But over and above that there is no reason for speaking if we are not understood. We might just as well use nonsense syllables or speak in a foreign tongue. Speakers often take for granted that because they understand their subject clearly, the audience will understand it equally well, merely because they give utterance to a number of words.

Communication is most effective when we use words understood by the audience addressed. Before a specialized technical audience, abstractions and generalizations common to the field may be used, provided a special study is not being presented in which the vocabulary is other than that common to the audience.

Certain words have the advantage of being understood by almost any audience. They are in less danger of being misinterpreted. For example, if the word *tree* is used, each listener pictures a tree familiar to him—an oak, elm, maple or some other specific tree. However, while this reference may be adequate at one time, at another it may not be. Perhaps designating the kind of tree as oak, elm, or maple will express the idea more clearly. If a still more exact description is advisable, you might add the color, size, shape, or texture. Details are helpful but they should never be given beyond the need of the audience. It is irritating to hear a man who details everything to the *n*th degree when the detail only confuses the over-all picture he is trying to convey. Overdetailing is a common fault of the specialist.

Abstract words lead to confusion or result in partial meaning unless the audience is fully familiar with them. When a controversial term needs to be defined the audience may set up a mental block to the entire talk if they disagree with the definition. Words like *democrats, republicans, communists, socialists,* aside from their emotional meanings, lead to confusion because few people hold the same definition for them. Even the individuals who claim to be members of the same group differ considerably in their conceptions of the meanings of the terms.

Similar confusion is encountered when speaking of qualities or ideals such as *happiness, success, liberty, the full life, free speech*. In our

thinking these are words of degree and the degree accepted by the speaker may not be the same as that held by the listener. Consequently, we have come to use such qualifications as *complete happiness, complete success, full liberty, the fuller life,* and *complete freedom of speech.* Upon reflection, some of our qualifications seem not only redundant but a bit ridiculous. It is no wonder that words lead us into confusion.

Words not only express ideas but they arouse emotional responses:

Ideas ⟶ Words ⟶ Listener ⟶ Response ⟶

If you tell someone that you admire his broadmindedness, his courage, his willingness to cooperate, his courtesy, his fairness, or his pluck, and you are sincere and he accepts it at face value, he will be favorably impressed. On the other hand, if you told the same person that you thought him narrow-minded, too weak to take a stand, uncooperative, discourteous, or lacking in intestinal fortitude, he would be unfavorably impressed.

Emotionally toned words are movers. They are favorite tools of pressure groups. Words like *fascist, socialist, capitalist, big business, brass hat, labor agitator, ring leader, gangster,* and *strike breaker* are used not only to designate but also to arouse prejudice and build opposition toward an individual or group.

Words should not only be specific but they should also be simple, brisk, active, and arranged in effective phrases, clauses, sentences, and paragraphs. Use the simple word whenever possible, the familiar in preference to the unfamiliar, and the nontechnical to the technical. It is better not to say the words if they convey your meaning incorrectly.

Action words, picture words, and descriptive words should be used freely. They stimulate the imagination and help the listener build the conception you want him to have. Thinking the exact word before you speak will make it unnecessary to break off in the middle of a phrase, drop it, and begin another. This will happen to even the best speakers and the audience does not object to it unless the speaker keeps on repeating it. Breaking up of thoughts begun is disconcerting to your listeners and interferes with the smooth development of your message.

Build a good vocabulary of words. It is a decided asset. Oral reading is one of the best means of developing vocabulary. When you read orally you actually sound the word, you get the feel of it, and after repeating a word a few times you attain oral command of it. Oral reading also has the advantage of expressing ideas in good phraseology, grammar, and style. By constant reading you absorb these positive features in your oral pattern. Also, develop the habit of consulting the

dictionary frequently. Make the study of the dictionary your evening's reading assignment occasionally.

In conclusion, the problem of communication in the specialized fields of knowledge and skills is becoming increasingly difficult because each field is building its own vocabulary and jargon. The demand for specialized knowledge is keeping us from educating ourselves in the fundamentals of all knowledge. Consequently, we find it more and more difficult to communicate outside our field of specialization. It is of paramount importance that we remember that words are not the objects we are presenting. They are sound symbols used to suggest those objects to the minds of our hearers. Our aim must always be to convey to the hearers the same idea that we hold. Specific words are better mediums for this purpose than are abstract words. In addition to relaying information, words can arouse emotion which may be directed into action. Simple, brisk, active words give vitality. An adequate vocabulary is a decided asset. It can best be developed by the oral reading of good literature—especially dramatic plays, essays, and speeches. Words are the main tools of the speaker. He must be in command of them.

SUGGESTED ASSIGNMENTS

General Suggestion

Observe speakers for the purpose of developing your ability to recognize and analyze what is effective and what is ineffective in their presentation. Train yourself to be more concerned with what is effective than with what is ineffective.

1. Report on a talk given by a business speaker and tell how he effectively demonstrated one point pertaining to each audience standard.
2. Prepare a talk on the psychology of holding interest. Consult reading materials, listen to speakers, talk with experienced speakers, or have an interview with an advertising representative, newspaper or magazine editor, or public relations man.
3. Hear a number of speakers and analyze the effectiveness of the personality of each apart from his message.
4. Listen to a speaker and evaluate the importance of his background of experience in its relation to the effectiveness of his particular message.
5. Listen to several speakers and develop a talk on "The Value of an Inquiring Mind" to speakers.
6. Report on three speakers and analyze the behavior of each before being introduced, during his introduction by the chairman, his acknowl-

edgment of the chairman, and his first thirty seconds before his audience.

7. Report on three speakers, preferably of different ages, background, and experience, and evaluate their posture, dress, and demeanor.

8. Report on the physical habits of three speakers during the delivery of their talks.

9. Report on three speakers as to the effectiveness of their vocal habits of volume, pitch, and rate.

10. Report on three speakers as to enunciation, conversational style, tone color, and progression.

11. Listen to three speakers in different fields, such as business, politics, and religion, and comment on the appropriateness of the vocabulary used by each. Observe the use of emotionally toned words.

12. Listen to several speakers; then give a talk on the value of an expressive vocabulary and how to build one.

CHAPTER 28

Introduction to Special Types of Business Conversation

Before developing the techniques of conversation, let us state the values and limitations of oral communication and compare and contrast some of the general characteristics of conversational methods with those of platform communication.

VALUES AND LIMITATIONS OF CONVERSATIONAL METHODS

In Chapter 19 it was stated that oral communication is the preferred means of communication in business because it is faster, easier, more personal, and often more economical. It has two further advantages. It is preferred when the opinions, judgments, and ideas of a number of persons are desired and when no written records are wanted. The latter is often desirable during the early stages of the development of new products, machinery, processes, and contemplated agreements or contracts. Until patents are applied for or action is completed, it may be better to have progress and negotiations exist only in the minds of the interested parties.

The conversational method, however, is not without its limitations and disadvantages. These can be very costly. The greatest loss is waste of time. It is so easy when discussing a problem to spend an additional five or ten minutes conversing pleasantly on a non-business subject; or to find some excuse for walking several blocks within the plant to speak personally with a person who could be reached by telephone. Speaking to individuals personally is much overdone. Carried to excess this can result in long automobile rides, or costly and time-consuming trips by train or air. In many of the latter cases a letter would be just as effective.

A second misuse is the failure to organize thoughts clearly before presenting them. Consequently the discussion is confused, and time is

SPECIALIZED FUNCTIONS OF THE BASIC STRUCTURE

The general functions may be subdivided to advantage into specialized functions. In the following pages we shall first study the general purposes of communication and show how each eventuates into a specific purpose; and secondly, we shall illustrate why and how the general functions are subdivided into the specialized functions.

The General Purpose

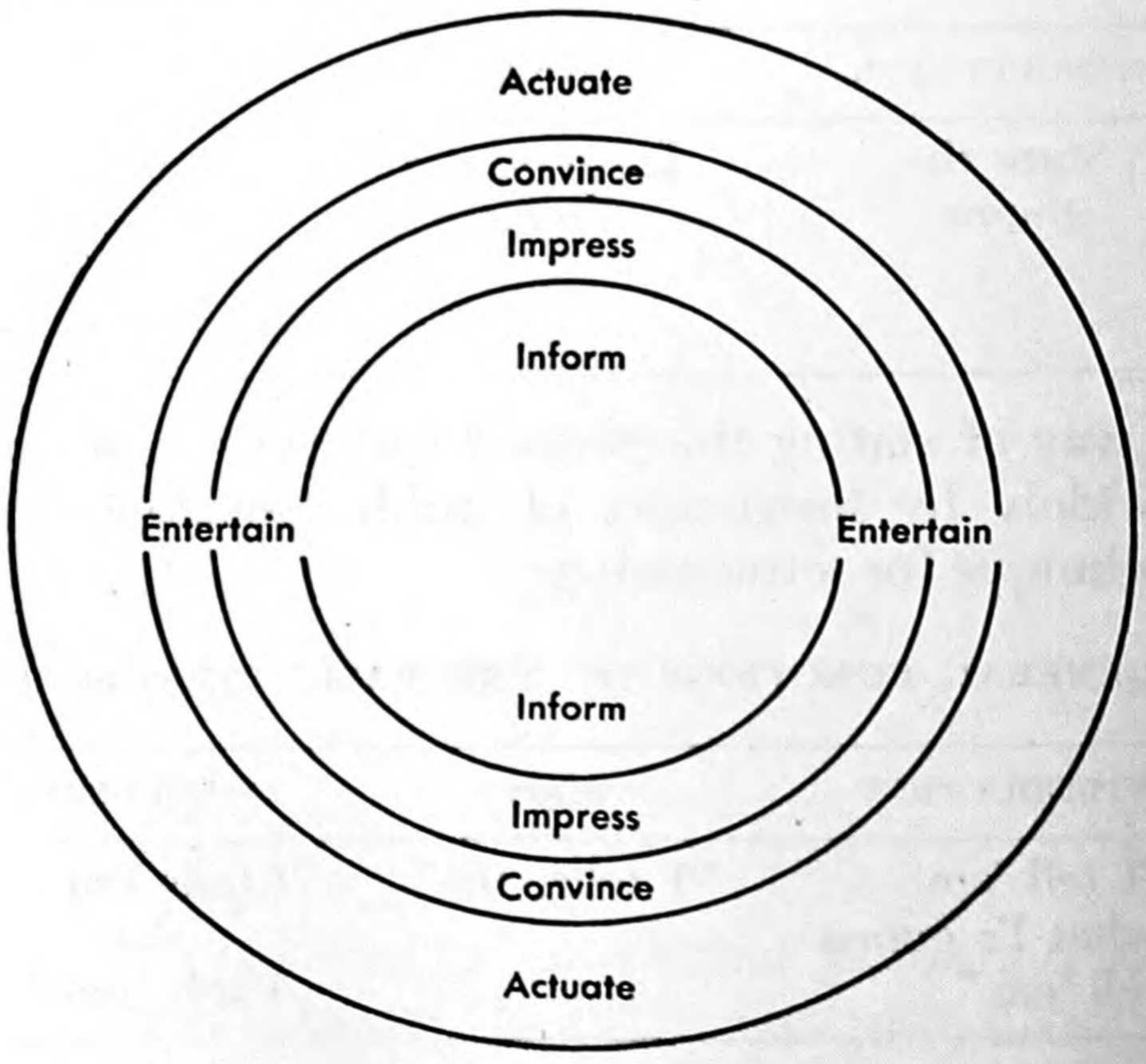
There are five general purposes of communication—to inform, to impress, to convince, to actuate, and to entertain.

The first four may be thought of as expanding general purposes. If someone says, "This is a table," he is informing you; if he says, "This is a priceless table," he is giving you information which he wants to be impressive; if he says, "This table is made of solid oak, while this one is imitation oak," he is informing, impressing, and trying to convince you that one is better than the other; if he says, "Will you buy this oak table?" he is attempting to actuate you.

From the foregoing it can be seen that the basic general purpose is to inform and that to impress, to convince, and to actuate are merely expansions of it. In other words, something is added.

The general purpose, to entertain, is seldom used individually in business talks but is usually incorporated with the other general purposes as illustrated in the following chart.

Expanding General Purposes of Communication:



The terms *inform*, *impress*, *convince*, *actuate*, which are used to designate the series of expanding general purposes, are not always specific enough in business. Therefore, synonyms such as the following are used:

accept	cooperate	inspire	prevent
advise	criticize	instruct	promote
announce	crusade	interpret	prove
appraise	delay	know	recognize
arouse	demand	motivate	reconsider
assure	direct	move	sell
awaken	disprove	order	suggest
believe	do	oppose	support
challenge	eliminate	persuade	test
change	encourage	plan	understand
clarify	evaluate	plead	warn
command	explain	praise	withhold
condemn	initiate	present	

The Specific Purpose

The end objective of each general purpose is the accomplishment of a specific purpose. It is the exact response that the speaker hopes to accomplish with the audience, i.e., the exact thing about which he wants them informed, impressed, convinced, or actuated. The following examples are wordings of specific purposes:

General Purpose	*Specific Purpose*
Inform	Know how to distinguish a line function from a staff function
	Know how to repair a Johnson carburetor
Impress	Realize the importance of wearing safety goggles
	Appreciate the contributions of electronics to everyday living
Convince	Believe that it is better to operate a business under the free enterprise system than under a planned economy
	Believe that fluorescent lighting is superior to any other form of lighting for reading purposes
Actuate	Send emergency orders by air
	Install a job evaluation system

The specific purpose is formulated at the outset of preparation. It determines not only the scope of the subject treated but also influences

the wording of the theme. If the specific purpose is specific action, as stated in the illustration, then the advantages of air transportation and the advantages of a job evaluation system must be presented clearly and convincingly. If the specific purpose is to inform, then advantages do not need to be presented. Practically speaking, an entire talk is built to accomplish the specific purpose.

The Specialized Functions

This section will illustrate by means of skeleton outlines the advantages of subdividing the general functions into specialized functions as the general purposes demand. Illustrations will include outlines where the general purpose is to inform, to impress, to convince, and to actuate. Strictly speaking all business talks have action as their goal. When action is not requested it is implied or expected. In this way the business talk varies from that given in academic fields. A speaker in business will say, "My main purpose is to give you information." What he means is that he is giving this information with the hope that the listeners will act upon it.

To Inform

The general purpose, to inform, requires only the basic structure form of organization. It will be noted that when information is the general purpose, the specific purpose and theme may be worded the same or in a very similar manner. The latter is used in the illustration.

In its simplest form an informatory talk needs no introductory material aside from the announcement of the theme. This is followed by development of the points of the body and a brief summary.

Example:

Subject —Capitalism
General Purpose —To Inform
Specific Purpose —Understand what the term, capitalism, means.

INTRODUCTION	BODY	CONCLUSION
	1. What is capital?	1. *Summary*
	2. Who are capitalists?	
3. *Theme*—"What does the term, capitalism, mean?"	3. What purpose does capitalism serve?	

NOTE: No. 3 preceding the theme means that the theme is the third specialized function of the introduction in the formula presented later in this text.

No. 1 preceding the summary means that it is the first specialized function of the conclusion.

To Impress

The general purpose, to impress, in its simplest form takes the basic structure plus a second specialized function in the conclusion which is termed *motivation* in this text. You recall that "to impress" has a special appeal to the emotions of the listeners. It will be noted that the theme and specific purpose are not similar, as they were in "to inform."

A talk of impression, in its simplest form, does not need introductory material aside from the announcement of the theme.

Example:

Subject —Teamwork in our Plant
General Purpose —Impress
Specific Purpose —Feel that the company appreciates your team-mindedness

INTRODUCTION	BODY	CONCLUSION
	1. What do we need to make business touchdowns? A Good raw materials B Modern plant and equipment C Trained team-minded men	1. *Summary*
	2. Your record is a history of team-mindedness. A Long, loyal service B Consistent quality C Interest above your responsibilities	2. *Motivation* Your team spirit has helped A Make us leaders of our industry B Make our reputation for quality the envy of the industry C Your company to be the only one in the industry able to declare a year-end bonus D Guarantee the future
3. *Theme*—"Your spirit has helped to make many business touchdowns."		

To Convince

The general purpose, to convince, in its simplest form takes the basic structure plus the second specialized function of the conclusion *motivation* as did the general purpose, to impress. The *motivation* step is usually a summary of the values of the points and an enumeration of any other benefits advanced in the body. The major variation in structure occurs in the body. Instead of a succession of related points on a single process, plan, or policy the body contains a succession of related points on two items and the merits are compared with each other.

Example:

Subject —On the Job Training vs. Vocational School Training
General Purpose—Convince
Specific Purpose—Believe that Vocational School Training results in greater benefits when viewed from a long range point of view

INTRODUCTION	BODY	CONCLUSION
3. *Theme*—Comparative values of on the job training vs. vocational school training	1. On the job training A Practical experience B Earn while learning C Short training period D High earnings quickly 2. Vocational school training A Theoretical learning B Practical training on a variety of machines C Fitted for higher responsibilities in the future	1. *Summary* 2. *Motivation* Vocational school graduate will A Be better trained B Be able to handle a greater variety of jobs C Make higher earnings in the future D Enjoy greater job security E Be better fitted for promotion

Example:

Subject —Free Enterprise
General Purpose —Action
Specific Purpose —Spread the story of free enterprise and practice it in your company every day

INTRODUCTION	BODY	CONCLUSION
1. *Attention* A The Comintern, the official propaganda organization of the Reds, revised in Belgrade, the White City, October, 1947 B The aim of the Comintern is to break down free enterprise in every country in the world 2. *Background* A The 1947 Comintern is the same organization used by the Russians to get their ideas of enslavement impressed prior to forming of U.S.S.R. B When the condition for revolution was ripe, and when the masses were confused, the political leaders moved in and seized power C Comintern attacks by mobilizing intellectuals and spreads its ideas through them	1. Tell the principles on which free enterprise stands A Constitutional government B Bill of Rights C Opportunity D Right to enjoy fruits of own labor E Right to own property F Freedom from restraint 2. Tell the true story of how free enterprise operates—strengths and weaknesses A What makes America tick? B Why free enterprise is so much more productive than any other system C How opportunities for cultural growth compare with other systems D How problems are solved E How free enterprise has shown that security and opportunity are not incompatible 3. Do not suppress the expression of Communistic ideas	1. *Summary* The Comintern is in action. Free enterprise has nothing to fear but its values must constantly be held before the American people A Tell the principles on which free enterprise stands B Tell the true story of how free enterprise operates C Do not suppress the expression of Communistic ideas D Practice free enterprise in your company 2. *Motivation* A In spite of problems of free enterprise in operation, no way of life has yet been developed or advanced which better recognizes the rights of the individual B Under it, America enjoys a standard of living beyond that of any other country 3. *Conclusion* A Practice free enterprise in your own company

INTRODUCTION	BODY	CONCLUSION
D Comintern attacks freedom by saying that it means only freedom to exploit poor; that it is a cloak for disharmony and dishonesty; that it has outlived its usefulness 3. *Theme* Our American business leaders must educate employees to the benefits of free enterprise and above all practice it so that it will be understood and cherished as a way of life	Get them out into the sunlight where they will die A State ownership B Subservience C Dictatorship D Force 4. Practice free enterprise in your own company A Recognize the dignity of the individual B Share equitably with labor C Recognize merit by advancement D Provide security	B Spread the wonderful story of free enterprise C Keep America free Keep America the land of opportunity Keep America for posterity

To Actuate

The general purpose, to actuate, in its simplest form takes the basic structure plus the specialized functions of *motivation* and *directed action* of the conclusion. In *directed action* the speaker tries to lead or guide the listeners into taking definite action.

To actuate is the major general purpose used in business. Even what might be termed a talk of pure information is presented with the thought that the ideas will be used to accomplish some end.

Other Specialized Functions

The preceding material showed the development of the simplest form which could be used to accomplish each general purpose. Generally, it is good practice, whether the purpose is to inform, impress, convince, or actuate, to have the introduction accomplish two other specialized functions—background and interest. Background is necessary to give the listeners data relative to the history of an organization, movement, or process; or to visualize a need; or to provide statistics, definitions, or facts. Interest helps to create a spirit of friendliness and to arouse interest in the theme.

It has been shown how the expanding general purposes require a variation of the basic structure and that the general functions of the introduction, body, and conclusion can be subdivided into specialized functions to advantage.

The following chart articulates the specialized functions:

THE SPECIALIZED FUNCTIONS

INTRODUCTION	BODY	CONCLUSION
1. *Interest* A To build a bridge of informality and friendliness B To create interest in the theme and purpose	1. *Main Ideas* To develop the main ideas inherent in the theme and of value to the particular audience; and to arouse emotion favorable to the specific purpose	1. *Summary* To bring into focus the content, conclusions, and significance of the whole talk
2. *Background* To prepare quickly the minds of the listeners for fuller understanding of the development of the theme	2. *Solutions* To discuss and evaluate the proposed or developing solutions of interest to the particular audience; and to arouse emotion favorable to the specific purpose	2. *Motivation* To bring into quick, sharp focus the present and future values of the main ideas or solution for the particular audience with the purpose of persuading them to act favorably on the specific purpose
3. *Theme* To state concisely or imply what is to be said about the subject or To state clearly the problem to be discussed		3. *Directed Action* To interest or direct listeners to take immediate action for or against, or to withhold action until further consideration can be given, or to postpone or take action at a future date

DEVELOPMENT OF THE SPECIALIZED FUNCTIONS

The breakdown of the general functions of the introduction, body, and conclusion into the specialized functions simplifies the problem of organizing a speech. It reduces organization somewhat closer to being a science.

The remainder of this chapter will deal with offering specific techniques and suggestions for the development of each specialized function. The techniques are tools. It is just as necessary for a speaker to know his tools as it is for the skilled mechanic. It is surprising how few speakers know the tools or even recognize them.

The specialized functions will be discussed in the order in which they occur in the introduction, body, and conclusion. In the following chapter they will be presented in the order in which they are developed during the preparation of a speech. The sequence is not the same and it is important that this fact be borne in mind.

Introduction

Interest

To build a bridge of informality and friendliness
To create interest in the theme and purpose

The problem at the beginning of every talk is to arouse the attention and interest of the listeners. If you do not, speaking is a chore. Oftentimes, the speaker is assured of both because the subject is vital and the audience eagerly awaits his presentation. However, if attention and interest do not exist beforehand, as is often the case, you must attempt to arouse both. Within each listener the stream of consciousness is ever active and if his interest is not held, his past experiences, anticipated experiences, or miscellaneous unrelated impressions flash through his mind. Therefore, problem No. 1 is to switch each listener's stream of consciousness from what he is thinking to whatever you want him to think.

How can attention and interest be directed to your subject? Let us attack this by discussing what attention is, how it is secured, and at which point listeners begin to attend; after that, what is interest, how is it secured, and how is it maintained?

Attention is preliminary to interest and accompanies it once it is aroused. From the speaker's viewpoint it means getting the listener to give involuntary, conscious, sensory attention first through his eyes and ears. Psychology tells us that among other things primary or involuntary attention, the strongest type, is held by movement, light, and sound. Therefore, let movement become our first point of consideration. You have full control over this stimulus. Attention to yourself does not begin when you step before the audience. It begins the moment you arrive at the place at which you are to speak and are recognized as the speaker. If the audience knows you beforehand, then of course attention and interest toward you already exist in their minds. But if the

audience does not know you, they are influenced by the way you meet people, the way you talk to them, the way you move, and your general attitude. If your actions and manner are vital, direct, and businesslike, you will create a favorable impression which will assist you when you begin to address the group. If the audience's impression before the talk is unfavorable, you have a barrier to overcome.

When responding to the introduction by the chairman, attention can be gained or lost by the graciousness or lack of graciousness with which you respond, and the manner in which you meet your audience. If your movements are businesslike and your facial expression friendly, sincere, and alert, you can be quite sure that you will hold attention. By your behavior you will suggest that you are the type of man who has something to say, will say it, and will know when to stop. You operate with the laws of light and position when you take center stage. The moment you begin to speak, you use the laws of sound. If the volume is adequate and the voice reasonably pleasant, attention will continue. Interest develops the moment the ideas expressed are understood and have meaning for the listeners. In summary, primary attention at the beginning of the talk is essential. If you do not have it when you begin, it will be much more difficult to gain it later. It can be captured if the laws of movement, light, and sound are properly coordinated with the expression of personality.

Next, interest must be aroused. Interest is deeper than attention. It is an emotional attitude toward a stimulus which produces a desire for continuation of that stimulus.

Once you begin to speak you must rely on the inherent holding power of your ideas and your identification with them. You cannot rely on physical movements alone. Speakers who wish to arouse only an emotional response in their listeners do so by using large, intense, physical movements and striking changes of volume, rate, pitch, and color. Examples are speakers of religious cults who believe that the religious experience is an ecstatic experience which must be expressed in a physical demonstration. Business communication must appeal primarily to the mind, and if the movement pattern of the speaker is disproportionate to the thought, it will interfere with the communication of the thought.

Intrinsic interest is aroused and maintained as long as the talk has meaning for the listeners. The audience will listen eagerly as long as it feels that it is learning, confirming, testing, opposing, or that a need is being satisfied or will be satisfied. In order to do this the speaker must present new information, additional information, or secret information; or clarify a confused situation, present a new interpretation, or

distinguish the important from the unimportant; or give a new viewpoint, application, trend, opportunity, solution; or articulate a hidden or future danger.

The specialized function of interest may be used to accomplish two purposes. First, it may build a bridge of informality and friendliness over to the audience. This purpose may have no direct bearing on the subject but may be very valuable to an early reception of yourself and your subject. In some organizations it is expected that the chairman will tell something humorous about the speaker and that the latter will retaliate in a friendly manner. Occasionally, the speaker does not retaliate to the chairman's remarks but tells another story about himself, or refers to something that occurred while coming to the occasion. A well-turned phrase may do as well as a story. Recently, a chairman gave the speaker a climactic build-up on his ability. When the speaker arose, he said, "While sitting here listening to Mr. Henson's glowing introduction, I could hardly wait to get up and hear myself talk."

Secondly, the interest step may be used to create interest in the theme and purpose. This is the more important function of interest. Stories are often used to advantage but if they have no relation to the audience or occasion or are in poor taste they should not be used. Unrelated stories have the inherent danger of stimulating the thinking of the audience in a direction other than that of the theme. Even though they may be well received you are introducing a thought competitive to your theme. A very humorous story may ruin the significance of a serious theme which is stated immediately afterward. Even a friendly retaliatory story to one told by the chairman should be followed by a well-timed pause and some such transitional statement as, "Now, let us get down to business."

The specific suggestions which follow can be used to aid you in developing your interest step. A variety of techniques is especially helpful to the speaker who must speak before the same audience frequently. Do not earn the reputation of always starting with a story. The suggestions may be used individually or in combination. Since they are self-explanatory they will not be illustrated.

SUGGESTIONS FOR AROUSING INTEREST

1. A complimentary statement about the organization or audience
2. Reference to a discussion with a few members before the meeting
3. Reference to a previous talk before the audience by the speaker or some other speaker
4. Reference to a remark made by the chairman or a previous speaker
5. A friendly retaliatory story about the chairman or some member of the organization

6. Reference to an editorial or article in a recent newspaper, trade publication, or magazine
7. Topic of current local, state, national, or international interest
8. Statement or testimony of a well-known authority on a controversial issue
9. Series of challenging questions to direct thinking toward the theme and its significance
10. Analogy familiar to the audience
11. Admission of a difference of opinion or points of agreement with the opposition
12. Significance of the subject for the audience, business, industry, or the community
13. Definition of terms
14. Story or anecdote with a point
15. Informing the audience as to what you are not going to discuss
16. Statement of purpose, goal, or action desired
17. Statement of difficulties avoided and benefits to be gained by following the proposal of the speaker
18. Use of visual aids—charts, graphs, slides, movies
19. Demonstration of a product or process before speaking
20. A striking statement

Background

To prepare quickly the minds of the listeners for fuller understanding of the development of the theme

Background is closely related to the interest step, and a clear-cut distinction is not always possible. For instance, material used in the background step may very well be used to open the talk and arouse attention and interest as well as provide background. But there is enough differentiation of function to consider the two specialized functions separately to advantage.

In the development of this function let us ask four questions before presenting a list of specific suggestions for developing the step.

What is background? Background is material that is essential to better understanding and comprehension of the theme and its development. It is as necessary to a well-planned talk as is background to a motion picture or a stage play.

What function does background perform? It provides setting, gives perspective, brings the listener up to date, lays the basis for judgment, clarifies terms, states the basic premise, or it articulates a need or an opportunity. Ideas have meaning as they are related to something known or understood.

How much background needs to be given? This must be determined by the audience's knowledge of the subject, the recency of their consideration of it, and its importance. Even for a well-informed audience

it is helpful to state a brief history or basic principles in order to bring these to the forefront of their thinking. For example, an engineer speaking on the possible industrial uses of atomic energy might consider it worthwhile to review the present forms of energy and their uses; an executive presenting a new labor policy might consider it imperative that he review the development of the labor policy of his company to date and give a picture of the present economic and social situation before presenting the new policy for consideration; or a research engineer speaking before a foremen's group would certainly consider it necessary to explain in lay language the meaning of certain technical terms which he expected to use.

In what form can background information be given? It can be related in the form of facts, statistics, events, history, definitions, theories, principles, premises, policies, practices, assumptions, rules, codes, or accepted truths.

The suggestions that follow can be used individually or in combination to aid you in developing your background step.

SUGGESTIONS FOR DEVELOPING BACKGROUND

1. Definition of technical terms and jargon
2. Series of in-plant, out-plant, economic or industrial happenings eventuating into a crisis
3. Results of previous experiments and trials
4. Progress of a plan to date
5. Avoidable difficulties
6. Reasons for the introduction of new policies, systems, products, processes, machines, or equipment
7. Historical statistics
8. Reasons for calling group together
9. Orientation to the history of a company, or to products, processes, methods, or competition, economic and social conditions, governmental changes and regulations
10. Statement of policy, premises, practices, rules, codes, or principles

Theme

To state concisely or imply what is to be said about the subject
or
To state clearly the problem to be discussed

The third specialized function of the introduction and the most important function is the theme. It can stand by itself. It is related to background and interest but is not dependent on them to the degree that it could not exist without them. They, on the other hand, have no purpose without the theme.

What is the theme? The theme is the subject of the talk. It is the summary statement of the entire talk and the one sentence you would give if you were permitted to express only one statement. It embodies the specific purpose, the main reason for speaking or central thought, and a limited phase of a subject. The specific purpose gives direction to the theme; the main reason or central thought, motivation; and a phase of a broad subject, substance. The main reason or central thought makes the theme audience centered.

What is the function of the theme? The function of the theme is to limit the scope of the subject, to restrict the content of talk, and to assure that the development will be audience centered to the end that the talk will be of specific value to the listeners, will stay within the time limit, and will accomplish the specific purpose. The theme can quite properly be termed *the control sentence.*

The determination of the scope of the subject as demanded by the specific purpose and time limit is a major consideration. It is not wise to pick a subject that is too broad. This usually results in a talk of generalities and leaves the audience with a skeleton. Let us illustrate. Suppose you were given the subject *Business Management* and were asked to discuss it in twenty minutes. If you are to fulfill the scope that is inherent in your subject, you must discuss the management of finance, purchasing, manufacturing, distribution, accounting, personnel, and administration. The talk would be of little value unless it was one of a series and its purpose was to orient the group to the various phases of management. If you delimited the scope of the talk to the last major function, administrative functions, it would be much easier to handle in the time allowed. If your purpose was to inform, you would present the four phases of administration, namely, planning, coordination, direction, and control. If you delimited your scope still further to the last-named point, *control,* you could undoubtedly give an even more effective talk. For example,

1. Objective —what is desired?
2. Procedure—how, when, where, and by whom will the plan be executed?
3. Criteria —what standards will be a fair measurement of performance?
4. Appraisal —how well was the total operation and its parts performed?

Next, the wording of the theme must be given consideration. All elements of the theme with the exception of the main reason or central thought have been discussed previously. The main reason or central thought can be determined quite easily if you ask the question, "why?" of the specific purpose. The following illustrations show how simple it is to word the theme:

Subject —Self-Management
Specific Purpose—Begin a program of self-management immediately
Central Thought—Self-management is an important step to advancement
Theme —Self-management plays such an important part in a business advancement that each of us should begin a personal program immediately

Subject —Morale
Specific Purpose—Exchange information with employees
Central Thought—Exchange of information develops understanding which is the basis of morale
Theme —Management must exchange information with its employees if it expects to develop understanding which is the basis of morale

Subject —National Economic Prosperity
Specific Purpose—Believe that economic peace is essential to prosperity
Central Thought—Prosperity is founded on economic peace
Theme —Economic peace is essential if we are to enjoy national economic prosperity

Subject —Administrative Control
Specific Purpose—Exercise the technique of administrative control
Central Thought—Administrative control results in values for the company and for you
Theme —Administrative control results in efficiency, accomplishment, profits; its practice increases your chances of promotion

The last illustration exemplifies very strongly a theme that is audience centered. In fact, it smacks a bit of high pressure salesmanship. In essence, it is the actual theme used by a correspondence course salesman before a supervisory group.

In general, the theme is stated in declarative form but a number of speakers prefer the question form. Some phrase the theme in the declarative form while they are preparing the talk but change to the question form when presenting it to the audience. Problem talks lend themselves quite naturally to the question form. The following statements of questions are illustrative. The first four are question forms of the themes stated earlier.

Can you afford not to have a program of self-management?
How can management develop understanding—the basis of morale?
Can the United States enjoy prosperity without economic peace?
What are the values of exercising administrative control—for your company and for you?
Should social security benefits be increased?
Where are management and labor headed?
Is opportunity in America greater today than it was a hundred years ago?

Do we need more or less government in business?
If the retirement age is lowered to sixty, what effect will it have on our national economy?
Why is labor unionism a monopoly?

The question form of theme statement has several advantages. First, it has the advantage of suspense. Neither the central thought nor the answer is stated. The listener must come to hear the talk if he wants the reason and the answer. Secondly, it forecasts that the speaker will come to grips with issues. This gives it the element of competition and, therefore, it arouses anticipation. Thirdly, it can serve equally well as the title of the talk. Fourthly, it can be used effectively when the speaker wants action from the audience but knows that if he asks for it directly or orders it, he will arouse opposition. For instance, in speaking to a group of mature supervisors who have stopped learning, the speaker might word his theme in the form of a challenge as follows, "Can we, as supervisors, afford not to keep on learning?" This is known as the indirect approach to action and often is the only sensible approach to take within your own organization. If he had worded it, "You must begin to learn if you expect to retain your position," he would have developed ill will even though his observation was correct. By the former technique the speaker included himself too. He built up the need for learning to such a degree that each listener felt that he could not afford to stop learning. If he did, he would be behind the times, and younger men coming along would replace him.

A further word should be said about the statement of the theme. It does not need to be fully given in the introduction. In fact, to do so in an exploratory type of talk would destroy the suspense factor or reveal the specific purpose. If the specific purpose is controversial, or if the members of the audience are prejudiced at the time of its statement, they may not listen to the discussion with an open and impartial mind. If the theme is not stated completely, you can lead your listeners from thought to thought and win their approval as you advance. Some speakers even go so far as to state only the phase of the subject, and then develop the talk by exploration through to Point 1 of the conclusion, *summary*, at which time they reveal the full statement of the theme. Thus, they have progressed to the theme, and its statement is a summary of what has been explored and developed. It is an effective technique and one that you may well keep in mind for the future. It is important to remember, though, that the theme must be very clear in the mind of the speaker even though he does not reveal it to the audience. This technique can be compared to going on a ten-day cruise with only the captain knowing which points of interest will be visited. There

is a certain romance in it and it holds great appeal for certain types of audience.

In conclusion, the theme is the most important specialized function of the introduction. It is the summary statement or control sentence of the entire talk and embodies the phase of the subject, the specific purpose, and the main reason or central thought. It restricts the content of the talk and directs it to a definite objective. Special consideration must be given to the delimitation of the scope of the material and to the wording. A well-worded theme is of inestimable help in preparation. In general, it is stated in declarative form but many speakers prefer the question form because of its audience-interest value. It is not always good practice to give the full statement of your theme in the introduction. If your audience is prejudiced against your main reason or specific purpose, the full statement may prevent you from receiving an impartial hearing. The theme is the backbone of the speech.

Body

Main Ideas

To develop the main ideas inherent in the theme and of value to the particular audience; and to arouse emotion favorable to the specific purpose

Solutions

To discuss and evaluate the proposed or developing solutions of interest to the particular audience; and to arouse conviction and emotion favorable to the specific purpose

The body is the main content or meat of the talk. It is broken down into main ideas and sub-ideas inherent within the theme and of particular interest to the audience. The points are arranged in a relationship type of sequence of logic, time, place, and value of importance.

What is the function of the body? It is to develop or give substance only to the ideas inherent in the theme; to arrange ideas in such orderly relationships that the listeners can follow and retain them easily; to give information which not only informs but also impresses, convinces, or conditions for action as the purpose demands so that the desired emotion will be aroused in the listeners and they will be favorably inclined to the specific purpose.

The material of the body may be arranged in one of three sequences:

1. A point sequence
2. A problem-solving sequence
3. A persuasion sequence

Within these sequences are inherent arrangements of order, time, place, and value or importance.

When the subject deals primarily with things, a point sequence incorporating some of the following headings may be suggestive: color, size, shape, texture, weight, quantity, quality, strength, speed, structure, design, construction, erection, basic materials, method of manufacture, distribution, function, use, performance, cost, advantages, and disadvantages; or the familiar biological scientific sequence may be used: What is this? How does this organism work? Whence? How have the forms and functions of life come to be as they are; or the biological sequence may be adapted as follows: What is it? How does it work? Where can it be used? What is its value?

When the subject requires a problem sequence, a few of the standard sequences of thought used both in and out of business may be suggestive.

Problem sequences are the ones most frequently used in business talks. They are based on the standard problem method of thinking in which previous action has led to an impediment or felt difficulty. The previous action is reanalyzed in order to determine the causes and the problem, suggestions are advanced as possible solutions, they are tested by reasoning, the decision is made and put into action, and it is rechecked. The solutions are usually presented with their advantages and disadvantages and compared with each other. Solutions are usually presented in the order of their value, the solution proposed by the speaker being given the final position and the greater part of the allotted time. The following four problem thought sequences may be helpful in planning the body:

Military sequence

1. What is the mission?
2. What are the conditions under which the mission must be accomplished?
3. What are the means available—men, equipment, information, materials?
4. The decision
5. Action

Medical sequence

1. Examination or diagnosis—search for the cause by the use of tests; observe and note the symptoms; try to understand the relations
2. List the possible causes
3. Apply tests or make further investigation to determine the exact cause
4. Decision
5. Treatment

Personnel problem sequence (training within industry)

1. Get the facts
2. Weigh and decide
3. Take action
4. Check results

Management sequence

1. Define your purpose
2. Analyze your problem
3. Seek the facts
4. Devise the one best method
5. Select the individuals best fitted
6. Teach the individuals best fitted the one best method
7. Plan the sequence of steps
8. Set the standards for performance
9. Check and appraise the results during and after completion of the project

The following five planning sequences may also be helpful in organizing the body. Like the previous sequences they are based on the scientific method of thinking.

Manufacturing sequence

1. The objective
2. Methods to be employed
3. Equipment
4. Materials
5. Men
6. Sequence of operations
7. Time for each step
8. Inspection standards

Product planning sequence

1. An idea
2. Research
3. Design
4. Development
5. Specifications for manufacture

Program planning sequence

1. Scope and purpose
2. Objectives
3. The plan
4. Evaluation and forecast of results

Administration sequence—control

1. Objective
2. Procedure
3. Criteria of performance
4. Appraisal of results

Methods improvement sequence—(training within industry)

1. Break down the job
2. Question every detail
3. Develop the new method
4. Apply the new method

The following sequences can be termed arbitrarily persuasion sequences. The problem and planning sequences stated previously are also persuasion sequences but they appeal somewhat stronger to the reasoning ability of the listeners. The following tend to stimulate the emotions somewhat more:

Inspirational sequence

1. Create an ideal, quota, or goal
2. Dramatize the value of its accomplishment
3. Express belief that the end can be accomplished
4. Cite other groups that have accomplished it
5. Express faith and confidence in the group to accomplish it
6. Minimize the difficulties
7. Present a simple plan of action
8. Challenge or invite to action

Inspirational sequence (variation)

1. Analyze the experience
2. Determine the motive or basic conflict
3. Present the ideal, code, or action of highest value
4. Motivate to strive for the highest goal

Political sequence (attack)

1. Discover a problem of the opposition
2. Create an issue
3. Overdramatize the issue
4. State that if you or your party were in office such a thing would never happen (promise nothing)
5. Dramatize the ideal the violation suggests
6. Appeal for action

Sales sequence

1. Attention
2. Interest
3. Desire
4. Conviction
5. Desired action

Inherent in the foregoing sequences are arrangements of order, time, place, and value or importance. Order is self-evident. Time may be divided broadly into past, present, and future. Incidentally, this is one of the most satisfactory sequences. The past serves as the back-

ground step, and the present and future serve as the body. If the three periods are broken down they can be further articulated into a spring, summer, autumn, winter sequence; or, a month, year, decade, century sequence; or, a prehistoric, primitive, Greek, Roman, Dark Ages, Renaissance, Industrial Revolution, etc. sequence; or a war sequence like Civil War, Spanish American, World War I, World War II, etc.

Place or geographical location may be articulated as in-plant or out-plant; within or without industry; city, state, section, nation, or world-wide.

Value or importance is an emphasis sequence and is arrived at arbitrarily. Points may be presented in an ascending scale of values or the alternation of a strong and secondary point of value with the most important point occurring in the final position.

The main ideas of both problem and nonproblem talks can be supported by the same type of data: facts, statistics, personal experience, testimony of authorities, conclusions of scientific studies, definitions, policies, theories, analogies, anecdotes, principles, premises, etc. Problem talks are also supported by opinions, reasons, and by comparisons of the advantages and disadvantages.

In conclusion, the body is the main content of the speech. It gives substance to the theme which serves as the backbone of the talk. It develops the ideas and arranges them so they will be easy to follow, comprehend, and retain; and so they will arouse in the listeners the desired emotion toward the specific purpose. Themes are developed basically according to a point sequence, problem-solving sequence, and persuasion sequence. Within these sequences are arrangements of order, time, place, and value or importance. Standard thought sequences used in and out of business can be suggestive as sequences for the body. The body is the meat of the talk.

Conclusion

Summary

To bring into focus the content, conclusions, and significance of the whole talk

The purpose of the introduction was to win favorable attention, prepare the listeners for fuller understanding, and acquaint them with the theme; and the purpose of the body was to develop the main ideas and arouse favorable emotion toward the specific purpose. The summary brings you to the place where you can drive home the points of view or thoughts you want your audience to remember; also, you are ready to attempt to accomplish your specific purpose.

What is the summary? It is the sum and substance or general idea of the whole talk. It may include a review of the whole talk, or a restatement of the theme and main points; or a restatement of the theme, the conclusion, and value of each point; and the significance of the talk for the audience.

What is the function of the summary? It is to bring into focus the content, conclusions, and significance, for the purpose of crystallizing the emotion of the listeners so that they feel the full impact of the whole talk and will be favorably prepared for the following step of motivation and directed action.

When you come to the summary you have arrived with your audience at the destination for which you set out together. Your listeners have the full story and should have a sense of completeness. The summary should not come as a shock to them nor should they have the feeling that the theme was not adequately developed.

If the general purpose was to inform, the summary step may be the last step of your talk. It may be a summary of the body and a restatement of the theme, or you may decide to close with a forecast of results or trends, or an interpretation of the political, economic, and social significance of your talk.

If your general purpose was to actuate, your audience should feel that your conclusions are its conclusions—that no other answers would seem reasonable. A quick summary of the talk as a whole will crystallize their emotion and prepare them for the next step, motivation.

The attitude of delivery in the summary can strengthen or weaken the talk as a whole. Speakers have been known to ruin a good message well delivered up to this point by an attitude of false modesty, or indefiniteness. The summary calls for the full expression of a man's belief in his ideas and convictions. The speaker who says at this point that he really didn't have enough time to think the problem through, or that he isn't sure that his conclusions are valid, or states that his conclusions are usually wrong, insults the intelligence of his listeners. An audience cannot be persuaded successfully if the speaker is uncertain, or if he is wishy-washy about taking a stand. Convictions based on facts and experience should pervade the delivery of the summary.

Motivation

To bring into quick sharp focus the present and future values of the main ideas and solution for the particular audience with the purpose of convincing them to act favorably on the specific purpose

The summary emphasized the significance of the material preceding it and the motivation step must attempt to further encourage the lis-

teners to act upon the specific purpose because of the values that will accrue to them.

What is motivation? Motivation brings to the attention of the listeners worthwhile present and future values that can be gained and difficulties that can be avoided, for the purpose of stimulating them to act.

What is the function of motivation? It is to convince the listeners that it is to their advantage to act favorably upon the specific purpose.

Motivation is a phase of persuasion. People can be directed to act but whether or not they will choose to act as directed depends more on their response to emotional reasons than to logical reasons. Appeals are made to desires, wants, fears, beliefs, prejudices, and values. Few people do things because they ought to or because they are told to do them. They do things because they want to do them.

Each listener before taking action asks himself questions like the following: "Why should I do this?" "Can I do this?" "Is it reasonable?" "Can it be done?" "Is it within my means or authority to do this?" "What benefit will I derive?" "What benefit will accrue to my department, company, or industry?" "Is the action consistent with the ideals, principles, policies, procedures, and rules of the organization?" The speaker should recognize the questions the listener must face before taking action and should not attempt to persuade him to carry out any action which is not ethical or which would in any way be injurious to him. Every speaker who persuades should be aware that he has an ethical obligation.

The emotional tool of persuasion is a "value" that is desirable to the listeners. Values may be classified broadly into those giving physical, economic, intellectual, moral, esthetic, or personality satisfaction. The values suggested are usually related to those the listeners already consider worthwhile. You must determine through your audience and situation analysis which values hold the greater meaning for the particular audience and which values it wishes to avoid. Determine the specific physical, economic, intellectual, moral, esthetic, and personality values which may be stimulated. For example, if a board of directors were considering an expensive major tool for one of its new plants it would seek a tool that would do the job faster, better, more uniformly, and at lower cost. The economic values would be paramount in their minds and these must be appealed to if they are to be persuaded. These same economic values stated in other words—speed, improved quality, duplication of product, and low cost—pertain to almost any item or operation of business. They are specific economic goals of modern competitive industry. They have led to the introduction of the assembly

line, automatic machines, bigger machines, modern methods of transportation, etc., and they will lead to other actions in the future.

The power of a value can be enhanced in presentation if we remember that when a person wants a value, he wants it usually because it leads to some other value. The board of directors wanted a better machine not only for the values of speed, improved quality, duplication of product, and low cost but because these values would result in more sales; and they wanted more sales because they would increase the company profits; and increased company profits might increase their earnings; and their increased earnings would enable them to buy additional things; and the additional things would give them prestige, and so on and on. Persuasion can encompass a whole chain of values.

The following suggested techniques of motivation are based on the thought that you will project your ideas or solutions into the life and situation of the listeners and show how either will benefit them. The suggestions are worded on the basis that you are trying to arouse favorable action toward your proposed idea or solution which may be for or against.

1. Cite the successful experiences or testimonials of others who have used the same or similar ideas, products, methods, processes, policies, plan, system, or services. Some groups hesitate to be the first to use anything new, and therefore, the sales technique of "use the user" in telling them about your idea may be helpful.
2. Cite the difficulties that will be avoided or eliminated by using or changing to the new idea, product, method, process, policy, plan, system, or service.
3. Cite the immediate and accumulating benefits that can be realized at a reasonable cost or little inconvenience by a change to or introduction of the new idea, product, method, process, policy, plan, system, or service.
4. Cite the loss incurred or benefits deferred by not introducing or changing to the new idea, product, method, process, policy, plan, system, or service.

The values suggested in these four points may very well have been stated in the body of your talk. Therefore, only a summary is necessary. Do not elaborate. A quick, strong enumeration is desirable. The impact on the mind is much greater by a quick enumeration than by a rehash of details.

If the purpose of the talk was inspirational, persuasive, and given to stimulate in the direction of ideals, the values should be visualized for the listeners. Appeal will lift men's minds to higher ideals and aspirations.

In conclusion, motivation is a process of visualizing for the listeners the benefits that are available to them by acting on the specific purpose. Motivation is a form of persuasion using both logical and emotional

appeals but recognizing that few people do things in the final analysis for logical reasons. Anyone who persuades has an ethical obligation. The emotional tool of persuasion is a physical, economic, intellectual, moral, esthetic, or personality value embodying satisfaction for the listener. Persuasion can be furthered by relating the benefit not only to the immediate value to be gained but to the chain of values to be enjoyed in the future. Certain techniques can be followed as guides to persuasion.

Directed Action

To interest or direct listeners to take immediate action for or against, or to withhold action until further consideration can be given, or to postpone or take action at a future date.

Directed action is a method of suggesting to listeners or directing them to take some form of action.

What is the function of directed action? The function of directed action is to interest listeners or to direct them to take action for or against, or to withhold action until further consideration can be given, or to postpone taking action to a future date, or to take action at a definite future date. The specific method of taking the action may also be stated.

A point that must be given serious consideration in your planning is whether a direct request for action is to be made, or the desired action is to be implied only, or the decision for action is to be put into the hands of the listeners. That point can be arrived at only after a careful analysis of the audience through which you will learn from an analysis of their action-taking habits whether they prefer to take action immediately or to suspend it until further consideration can be given. Pushing for action with an audience that is in accord with your specific purpose, but does not like to be hurried into a decision, may result in their permanent refusal to cooperate. As was stated earlier, people act primarily for emotional reasons rather than logical reasons.

The following suggestions should prove helpful in planning your method of directing action, whether it be to ask for action for or against, to withhold action until further consideration has been given, or to postpone action to a definite future date. Remember that a friendly tone in the final words leaves the listeners with a pleasant feeling toward you and your idea even though you may not obtain the desired action at the time.

1. A direct appeal for immediate or early action
2. Presentation of a specific plan of action simplifying the taking of action
3. Closing with a case in point

4. Resting the final action with the listeners
5. The offer of further service
6. Suggesting that certain test questions be asked of any other plan or solution before rejecting the one offered
7. Recommendation of further study or investigation of other plans, solutions, or programs
8. Challenge
9. Offer of inducements to act, such as guarantee of satisfaction on trial basis, special price, or special terms
10. A quotation

SUGGESTED ASSIGNMENTS

General Suggestion

Listen to speakers primarily to observe the organization of the talk as it progresses to the specific purpose.

1. Report on two talks you have heard or read and criticize each as to the statement of its theme, the orderly development of the points of the body, and the statement of the summary.
2. Listen to or read three talks and give the general and specific purpose of each.
3. Present the outline of a current talk the purpose of which was to secure action. Determine the specialized functions used and tell why each was used in its respective position.
4. Develop five opening sentences which will arouse interest. Use five of the suggestions for arousing interest given in this chapter.
5. Develop and give the background material for two talks on subjects of your own choosing. Use two suggestions for developing background given in this chapter.
6. Develop and present four statements of themes for talks which are to impel action.
7. Present a talk using one of the problem sequences in this chapter.
8. Present a talk using one of the planning sequences in this chapter.
9. Present a talk using one of the persuasive sequences in this chapter.
10. Develop two motivation and action steps for talks which are to impel specific action.

CHAPTER 23

Organization and Preparation of the Speech for Delivery

THE FORMULA

A. *Introduction*

Organizing a speech is not difficult. Many speakers dread it simply because they have no method of approach. They sit down and write whatever flashes into their minds no matter how remotely the thoughts may be related to their theme. They may have no clearly defined theme. Consequently, they write a mass of unrelated material that has little or no value.

They may rewrite the introduction ten times and seem never to get to the body. Each time they think they have a suitable introduction, they find that it doesn't fit the material which is developing, so they start all over again. To them speech organization is a matter of going in circles, and after so many tries they get out of the circle somehow and find an introduction which blends with the developing body.

What is the weakness of this approach? It is lack of a plan. They attempt to compose the talk in the sequence in which it will be delivered. The first step should be the planning of the conclusion and not the opening remarks of the introduction. When you take a trip, you decide first where you want to go. You establish your objective. Once you know it, you can decide whether you want to take a direct route or a somewhat roundabout route. Speech organization is no different. First you must establish your objective. What is it that you wish to accomplish? Put it down in writing. Speech organization is not difficult but it must be approached systematically.

What is the approach to easier, quicker, and more effective preparation? The method suggested in this text is to prepare according to the sequence of a tested formula. A chemist assembles his materials to accomplish a particular purpose and then mixes them and processes them

if necessary. Speech preparation is not much different. It requires the gathering of materials and fitting them into a coherent, persuasive story so that a specific purpose may be accomplished. The formula suggested is not rigid and permits great flexibility in arrangement and development of ideas. It does not produce a "canned" type of final structure. The exactness which a formula demands is determined by you. You must decide the specific organization and wording after you have thought out your specific purpose and theme and how you intend to adjust both to your audience.

Organizing by a formula will give you the feeling that you are doing your job professionally and you will be in full control of the organization at all times.

The formula is founded on the basic structure of speech organization which, as has been stated previously, is both logically and psychologically sound. The basic structure has stood the test of time. It is no longer on trial. This fact gives you assurance beforehand that your talk will be coherent at least.

Speech organization need not be difficult. Preparation according to a tested formula assures a logical and interesting arrangement and gives the user the feeling of doing his job with professional skill.

B. *What is the formula?*

The formula suggested is a method of organizing and presenting ideas in a logical and psychological arrangement to the end that the talk will be clear, easy to follow, audience centered, and successful in accomplishing the objective of the speaker.

The arrangement is that of dividing the general functions of the introduction, body, and conclusion into the specialized functions under the headings of:

INTRODUCTION	BODY	CONCLUSION
1. *Interest* 2. *Background* 3. *Theme*	Main ideas or solutions	1. *Summary* 2. *Motivation* 3. *Directed action*

C. *How is the formula used?*

The formula serves two purposes. First, it serves as a pattern for the tentative arrangement of ideas as they are gathered during preparation; and secondly, it serves as a flexible pattern for the actual sequence of arrangement of ideas for the final speech.

Let us consider first a few of the mechanics that must be understood

before ideas for the actual talk are gathered. Provide yourself with space about the area of a card table where you can lay out or pin up your materials as you gather them and where no one will disturb them. Lay out the area in the three divisions of introduction, body, and conclusion and subdivide them, using the headings of interest, background, and theme for the introduction, and summary, motivation, and directed action for the conclusion. For the time being you cannot decide on the subdivisions of the body because you have no subject. However, you do know that it will be divided into a point system or solution system.

Now a few suggestions on the mechanics of gathering your material. Record all gathered material on cards or pieces of paper of uniform size—preferably 3 × 5. Cards are more satisfactory because they lie flat. Write on one side of each card only. You will want to arrange them later one below another under the headings of the specialized functions, and if all material is on one side, the full content of the card is always visible. Put only one point on each card, as you would if you were making a research study. This gives you maximum flexibility. You will be able to rearrange your cards quickly or delete them if necessary. The old-fashioned method of writing ideas on standard 8 × 11 sheets and then cutting them off singly is irritating and a waste of time. It is helpful to put a heading on each card in the upper left hand corner. It serves as a pre-step to rearrangement under your final headings.

Hearing

The normal person uses his eyes
a great deal as an aid to hearing.

This card might be used later under the heading of volume. Sources are better put at the bottom or on the back of the card. As you fit the cards close together later to build your sequence of ideas, you will have a minimum of extraneous material. Take pains to word the data on each card carefully. You will find that you will reread each card

often as you rearrange them and you will unconsciously assimilate word patterns. So much for the mechanics of laying out your work area and recording your data. Next, you are ready to use the formula as you gather material for your speech.

Each card containing a single point is tentatively filed in the section where it seems to best accomplish the specialized function of that subdivision. You can watch the talk developing in all its parts as you add cards under the various headings. This approach gives you a sense of control over the developing talk in all its phases. You will find that one card will be placed under motivation, the next under background, the following under interest, and so on. Then as the talk takes form you may transfer a card from one section to another where it seems to fit better. Sometimes you will be in doubt as to whether you should put a card in one section or another. Put a red check mark in the upper right hand corner and file it temporarily under the heading you think best.

After you have gathered all the material you think you will need, you will be ready to use the formula for its second purpose, namely, to organize the material in the order of your final talk. This will be a process of rearranging your cards, transferring them to other headings, and deleting those that do not fit into the scheme of things.

During the gathering and rearranging of related data under each specialized function, topical headings will have come to your mind. These must now be completed. Sometimes this step is already completed because you decided on your topical headings, for the body at least, at the very outset of planning. Arrange your materials logically and take out all cards that are not pertinent. The content of some cards will be a duplication of ideas on other cards, and these must be deleted; or, the content of several cards may be summarized to advantage on a new card. Once the topical headings are decided the subheadings will also suggest themselves. Your speech has begun to take outline form and you can take steps to arrange it according to the formal outline pattern as follows:

I.
  A.
    1.
      (a)
      (b)
    2.
      (a)
      (b)
  B.

The topical headings may be stated in a single word, a single phrase, a declarative sentence, or question form. The last is an excellent form and is not used nearly enough. It has the advantage of encouraging your audience to think the subject through with you. Pure declarative form often becomes a pouring-in process with little mental activity on the listener's part.

While organizing the formal outline you can give attention to supporting your main and sub-points by facts, testimony, statements of authorities, personal opinions, specific cases, editorial comments, current events, definitions, advantages, disadvantages, outcomes, etc. Bring the outline of the body of your talk to rather complete form first. This should be followed by outlining the background, summary, motivation, directed action, theme, and interest steps. At this point it is well, if time permits, to let the outline rest for a while. When you come back to it later you will have a fresh point of view and you can give it the finishing touches.

D. *What are the advantages of the formula?*

The advantages of the formula method of preparation and presentation are probably quite clear, but let us summarize them briefly:

The formula is a tested logical and psychological arrangement.

It gives the user a professional approach to speech preparation and organization.

It permits an orderly arrangement of ideas during the collection of data even though they are not gathered in a sequential manner.

Recording ideas on separate cards gives the user maximum flexibility in rearrangement and saves considerable time.

The user can visualize the whole talk at any stage of preparation and can readily see which area needs more data and support. This gives the user a visual sense of control at all times.

Frequent handling and rereading of cards as the user tries to fit them together helps him to assimilate the contents of the talk by exercising the law of repetition without any effort.

Visualization of the whole talk at all times, in addition to giving an overview, helps to integrate the parts. It also suggests new relations, new interpretations, and new applications of the various subpoints and main points.

The formula is an easy pattern to remember. If the body ends in three points as most talks do, the formula will have the following pattern:

Speech as a whole	3 parts
Introduction	3 parts
Body	3 parts
Conclusion	3 parts

It simplifies the use of notes. The final outline can be condensed under the same form on a 3×5 or a 4×6 card. One card is all the speaker needs to carry.

Once mastered, the formula can be used as the pattern of organization to be used if asked to speak on the spur of the moment.

In conclusion:

Decide upon your specific purpose.
Formulate your theme.
Lay out your workplace by subdividing an area the size of a card table into three sections for the introduction, body, and conclusion. Then subdivide the introduction and conclusion each into three sections for the respective specialized functions. Tentatively do not subdivide the body.
Record all material on 3 × 5 cards.
Record one point on each card.
Tentatively file each card under the specialized function it complements best.
Rearrange and organize cards under topical headings under each specialized function.
Delete cards that do not fit into the thought pattern and combine those that can be combined to advantage.
Make the formal outline starting with the body and following with the background, summary, motivation, directed action, and interest steps.

THE SPEAKING ASSIGNMENT

An individual seldom initiates the speaking assignment himself. It usually comes in the form of an invitation or request. He is asked to speak in-plant or out-plant because of his specialized knowledge. Business time is too costly to listen to a man who does not have first hand knowledge.

The first question that the individual should ask himself is, "Can I be as helpful to this group as any other person in the organization?" If the answer is in the negative, the request should be referred immediately to the person or department best qualified. It is expected that when a request is made of a man and he is not qualified to handle it adequately, he will have the good sense to refuse or to refer it to the proper person.

Outside organizations often do not investigate a speaker's qualifications thoroughly before inviting him to speak. The following situation is an example. A foremen's club heard that a representative of a large company had delivered an excellent paper before a technical society. Without inquiring further the club wrote to his employer and asked if he might deliver the paper to them on a certain date. The manager of the sales engineering department to whom the letter was addressed realized that the paper, because of its highly technical nature, would be of little value or interest to the group. His inquiry showed that the

plant had been having a number of practical problems which they hoped the paper might answer. The manager sent one of his practical engineers down to talk to the club, and he was able to give the type of talk the club members hoped the technical paper would have covered. The foremen's club was very appreciative of the fact that the company went out of its way to send them the man best qualified to help them on their particular problem.

In general, the requests to speak are definite, but if they are not, the speaker should not hesitate to ask for further information. Requests from in-plant are definite and will come about as follows, exclusive of details: "We are planning an institute for factory superintendents on the business management organization of the company. Will you please present the sales function? Develop what the function of your section is, what organization you have set up to accomplish your function, what the field of competition presents, and what problems you have on which the superintendents can be of help to you. The talk will be limited to thirty minutes and will be followed by a question period."

Requests from out-plant are quite indefinite at times and the individual asked must guess as to what the group would like. However, the average request that comes from service organizations, luncheon clubs, and community groups is definite and will be about as follows, exclusive of details: "We have heard of the new product that your company introduced and we would like to have you speak to our organization on what the basic materials of this product are, how it is manufactured, what the outlook is for its distribution, and whether or not it will require the employment of additional help."

The speaking assignment is an opportunity and should be filled only by the individual best suited to fill it profitably for the group and the company.

THE ANALYSIS OF THE AUDIENCE AND THE SITUATION

Before you organize your speech, it is necessary that you know your audience. Your listeners may not know you, may not know that you are the speaker of the day, and may not even know the subject of your talk. This condition, however, does not excuse you, as the speaker, from knowing everything important about them.

Why do listeners go to hear a speaker? Frankly, many of them do not know. Perhaps the organization to which they belong has a regular meeting and it is customary to have a speaker at each meeting. Who he is, why he has been invited, and what his subject will be, they have not bothered to find out. This is not flattering to the speaker's ego but

it is a practical situation which must be faced occasionally. On the other hand, there are listeners who know why they go to hear a speaker. They know who he is, why he has been invited, and what his subject will be. They look forward to learning his point of view or learning how his company handles problems similar to theirs. They are eager for any new idea and they formulate questions that they want to ask him in the question period. No matter what the reason is for your audience's attendance, it is better for you to know beforehand what their interest is than to wonder during your talk why they are not responding.

An audience and situation analysis should be made whether the speaking assignment is in-plant or out-plant. No two groups even within the same plant are identical, and the same group does not necessarily respond the same each time. The morale within a plant changes from day to day. One rumor as to a wage increase or decrease, or change in vacation pay, coffee periods, or work schedules, or promotion or change of supervision can disturb the emotional equilibrium of a department or the whole organization. Such psychological conditionings must be understood no matter what the subject is that you are going to discuss. To reach people's minds you must know what they are thinking generally and what they will think about the material that you will present.

When speaking before an out-plant audience, a comprehensive analysis must be made. There is no excuse for not making it. To speak before a group without knowing them thoroughly is unfair to yourself as well as to the audience. Without it you are like a rifleman in a contest who does not take aim but shoots in the general direction of the target in the hope that he will hit the bull's-eye.

Is an audience analysis helpful? Let us illustrate. An excellent speaker with a well-organized talk was disappointed with the response of the second audience to whom he presented his talk. The first audience, a group of salesmen, applauded his talk and their comments on its value were gratifying. Was the second audience at fault? No. The speaker was sales-minded. He told the first audience what the product would do and they visualized how easy it would be to sell it. Their economic objectives were satisfied.

The second group was a manufacturing group. They had some interest in the performance of the product but they were more interested in learning how the product was made, what raw materials were used, what the methods and processes of manufacture were, and what problems of manufacturing were encountered. The speaker made no change in his talk. The second group heard the identical talk. An analysis of

the second group would have made him realize that he must give a different talk, or relate performance to the quality which was built into the product by the factory organization. A talk in order to be helpful and interesting must be presented so that it lives within the experience of the listeners and satisfies their needs according to their interests and sense of values. Only in this way can the speaker hope to condition them emotionally for the specific purpose.

Best results are obtained when the speaker, like the rifleman, aims at the bull's-eye. He must know the audience, i.e., who they are, what they do, what their problems are, what they are thinking about, what they want, why they want what they want, and how they satisfy their wants.

The means of obtaining the foregoing information is the analysis of the audience and the situation. The information is usually available but it requires time and effort to search it out. With it you will know how to present your material so that you can accomplish your objective; without it, you must guess.

The following questions pertaining to the audience and the situation will give you a comprehensive analysis of both.

A. *The organization as a whole*

What is the name of the organization?

What is its purpose? Its history?

What is the point of view of the organization? Liberal? Conservative? Reactionary?

How does the organization stand in the eyes of other organizations and the community?

Was the organization awarded any special honors lately?

Has the organization done anything outstanding recently?

What projects is the organization carrying on at present?

Is the organization as a whole concerned about any particular community, state, or national issue or problem?

How does the organization respond to requests for action, cooperation, support, money, effort, change, or new ideas?

Who is the chairman of the meeting? What office does he hold? What firm does he represent?

Who are the other officers of the organization? What firms do they represent?

Who are the other important people in the organization?

Every time you speak outside your own organization, you are functioning as a public relations representative of your company. The people you meet and address—whether they be members of a church group, Parent-Teacher Association, local service club, Chamber of Commerce organization, customer's group, supplier's group, technical

society, trade association, or any other group—form an opinion of your company by the impression you make upon them. Therefore, the more you know about them as an organization and as individuals the easier it will be to fulfill your function of public relations as well as bring them a worthwhile message. Know the names of the people you will meet. Arrive early so that you may be introduced to them. Make yourself known to the chairman as soon as you enter the hall.

A knowledge of the point of view of the organization will indicate how your point of view needs to be presented; and the other facts learned will suggest numerous ways of building a bridge of friendliness and informality by your opening remarks. Foreknowledge of how they respond to requests for action will suggest how you should present your specific purpose if you desire action.

B. *The membership of the organization*

How many members are there in the organization and how many can be expected to attend the meeting?

Will the audience be made up of men only, men and women, or women only?

What is the age range of the group?

What is the educational background of the members? High School? College? Specialized?

What other group affiliations do the members have? Political? Religious? Social? Technical?

What type or types of businesses are represented within the group?

What firms are represented in the membership? Are any of the firms customers, distributors, suppliers, competitors?

How do the members feel about the speaker's firm?

What is the job status of the members? Employers? Supervisors? Managers? Executives? Small business men? What are their jobs?

What is the approximate range of income of the members?

Is the attendance at the meeting voluntary or compulsory?

Are the members attending the meeting because they want to hear the subject discussed or is it a routine event?

A good knowledge of the membership will help you to judge the vocabulary you should use; the types of cases to include as supporting data; whether you can expect interest on the part of the audience toward the subject at the outset or whether you must develop it; what ideas are better not expressed before customers, distributors, suppliers, or competitors; and what you need to say to win the favor of those who do not think favorably of your company.

C. *The meeting*

What is the nature of the meeting? Regular? Anniversary? Testimonial?

What is the nature of the membership? Local? State? Sectional? National?

What is the agenda? Business meeting? One speaker or several speakers? Is the speaking program a forum, symposium, or panel?

Where will the meeting be held? Is there anything significant about the place or room? Will the talk be given indoors or outdoors?

What were the agenda of the previous programs? Who spoke and what were their subjects? What points of view did they express and what were the reactions of the members?

A knowledge of the purpose of the meeting, if it is other than a regular one, will give you time to prepare appropriate remarks of good wishes or commendation in behalf of your company. A knowledge of the distances and places from which members come will tell you whether you should confine the application of your ideas to local problems or extend them to state and national problems. A knowledge of the agenda will clarify the capacity in which you are expected to participate, and its length may indicate that you had better be prepared to shorten your talk. A knowledge of the significance of the place, if it is significant, may suggest an opening statement or aid you in relating your ideas to those expressed in the same place on previous occasions. A knowledge of the subjects delivered by previous speakers may save you the embarrassment of giving a talk almost identical to one presented previously.

D. *The material*

What is the subject the speaker has been asked to discuss?

Why does the audience want to hear the subject discussed? Is it a problem within the group? In what way does it affect the group? What does the audience expect to gain specifically by hearing the talk?

Does the audience expect the speaker to express a pro or con point of view, or to discuss both points of view? Does it want him to evaluate the proposed solutions or his own solution?

Is the speaker expected to take a stand because of his position in his company, or the position of his company in the industry?

What does the audience know about the subject? Are they well informed, partially informed, misinformed? What are their opinions? Have they any objections? Are they planning to take action or have they already taken action on the problem to be discussed? Are they indifferent to the subject and its implications?

Does the chairman want the speaker to report certain personal experiences he has had in connection with the subject or problem? Does the chairman want the speaker to include several of his (chairman's) thoughts?

How thorough a discussion or development of the subject would the audience prefer?

A knowledge of what the audience wants to hear about your subject simplifies the determining of your main ideas. Knowing the particular difficulties of the group and what the group hopes to gain from your

discussion suggests objectives that you must accomplish from the listener's point of view. The request to take a pro or con stand or to evaluate the solution assures you of interest at the outset of your talk.

If the audience expects you to state the position of your company on a problem, you must be sure that your views are those of your management. This type of talk requires that the talk be written and have the approval of an official of the company. A knowledge of the degree to which your audience is versed in your subject aids in telling you how much background must be given before actually discussing the subject or problem. It also enables you to prepare for the objections which may be presented in the question period. Suggestions by the chairman are usually valuable because he understands the needs of the group and knows what they consider worth while. Occasionally, a chairman tries to influence the speaker to present ideas which he would like to tell his audience but which, because of his position, he dares not. In such cases the speaker must determine whether they are ideas that he wants to include or exclude. And finally, acquaintance with your listeners' demands for scholarship, humor, or visual aids will tell you how your group likes to have its talks presented.

E. *The speaker*

Why has the speaker been asked to present the talk? Why not someone else?

Has the speaker been asked:

(a) because of his knowledge of the subject?
(b) because of his leadership in the field?
(c) because his point of view will represent that of his company and perhaps be representative of similar companies or the industry?
(d) because the speaker has expressed himself previously on the issue and has upheld a point of view in the face of opposition?
(e) because of his reputation as a speaker?
(f) because of a political motive on the part of the organization inviting him?

What is the speaker's connection with the organization, if any?

What is the relationship of the company the speaker represents to the organization for which he will speak?

How does the audience feel about the speaker's point of view? Will they accept or oppose it? How do they respond to change?

The foregoing questions tend to overlap with some of the previous questions under earlier headings, but it is worth while for the speaker to ask these questions relative to his relationship to the audience and the situation. A speaker should always be clear as to whether his talk is to be considered as an expression of his personal opinion or whether it is to be considered as the expression of that of his company.

Knowledge of how the audience will receive your point of view and purpose is a primary consideration. It determines the approach to your talk. It tells you what your problem of persuasion is and suggests what ideas and attitudes the audience holds in favor of your purposes and what ideas and attitudes it holds in opposition.

F. *Miscellaneous details*

Certain important miscellaneous details must be secured.

What is the date and time?

Where will the talk be given? Any special instructions about getting there? Any special building or room?

What length of talk is expected?

Will there be a question period? How long?

Will there be a loud-speaker system?

Are there provisions for visual aids—electrical outlets, blackboard, easel, moving picture screen and projector, display tables, or special lighting facilities?

THE PROCESS OF ORGANIZATION

After the assignment has been accepted and the audience and situation analysis has been completed, you are ready to begin building the talk itself. Keep the findings of your audience analysis well in mind as you prepare the talk, for it must be designed for the particular group—not any group.

As was pointed out earlier, the sequence of preparing a talk and the sequence of delivering a talk are not the same. The sequence recommended in this text in connection with using the formula during preparation is as follows:

A. *Determine your specific purpose*

The assignment and the analysis of the audience and the situation usually clarify your specific purpose. If it does not, you should determine it tentatively, at least as your first step. You must have a goal even though you may have to modify it somewhat later.

Determination of the specific purpose is not difficult when the general purpose is to inform, to impress, or to convince, but it may be difficult to determine if it is action. The action you would like the audience to take may be beyond their means, time, or effort; or they may be prejudiced or opposed to the idea; or they may not be willing to act until some other group has acted. In some instances you may have to be satisfied, as your first attempt, to get a hearing on the subject without asking for action in any form.

Therefore, the final wording of the specific purpose cannot always be decided at the outset. After you have gathered your material and thought through its values for the audience, you may be in a better position to know what you can reasonably expect your audience to do. Conditions at the time that you give your talk may also determine whether you can expect your audience to do more or less.

Determine as your first step the maximum that you would like the audience to accomplish. You can modify it later if need be.

B. *Formulate your theme*

Tentative formulation of the theme is your second step. It is your control sentence. It is a combination of the subject, the main reason or central thought, and the specific purpose. When formulating your theme sentence, you will save yourself much time if you ask the person who asked you to speak what the members would like to hear discussed and why they want it discussed. In-plant, you are usually told the objectives which you are expected to accomplish. Answers to questions may give you the main reason or central thought and will definitely bring out suggestions for the content of the body.

Let us consider an actual case. A sales manager was asked by the local branch of cost accountants to speak on *Distribution Costs*. Instead of accepting the invitation by letter he telephoned his acceptance to the chairman and asked him what the members would like to hear on the subject from the sales point of view. He learned that the organization was interested to know whether competition was making it necessary to reduce distribution costs; how much stock should be carried and what items; whether warehouses should be located in various industrial centers or if it was more economical to ship directly from the factory; how many men should be allocated to each sales area; whether distribution costs could be lowered by increased personnel in an area with the hope of increasing volume; and whether it was more economical to sell through distributors or by sending one's own sales force into the field.

The foregoing suggestions plus the audience analysis provided adequate data to formulate the theme.

Subject—Distribution Costs
General Purpose—Action
Specific Purpose—Help your sales manager lower his distribution costs
Main Reason—Lower distribution costs will enable your company to lower its selling prices, and thereby improve its competitive position.
Theme—How the accounting department can help the sales manager lower the distribution costs, and thereby lower selling prices and improve the company's competitive position

The sales manager was able to audience-center the theme from the information suggested by point 2, i.e., in the audience and situation analysis, "What are the functions of their jobs?" This brought to light the fact that an accounting department is a staff department and that it could be called upon by any department of a company to assist it in matters pertaining to the reduction of costs.

The foregoing talk might very well have resulted in a purely informative talk if the sales manager had used the subject, distribution costs, as his theme. He realized that he could make it have more meaning for the group if he audience-centered it and made it an action talk. You can often make an informative talk more effective and interesting by expanding the general purpose to action and asking for specific action not for yourself but for the benefit of the audience and of the company each listener represents. As far as the sales manager was concerned he had nothing to gain personally by their taking action on his suggestion. His gain was indirect. He had delivered an effective public relations talk for his company.

Word the theme as accurately as you can before you attempt to gather your data. It sets the scope of the talk and saves the collection of unnecessary data.

c. *Gather your data and check their appropriateness with the theme and audience analysis*

The theme will suggest whether the content of the body should be arranged in a point sequence or problem sequence. The latter tends to hold stronger interest because the nature of the material is that of conflict.

The data will be gathered from five sources. The first and most valuable is your own personal experience. It is original and personal. Record as much of your own material as you can recall. Bring together what you know about the subject before you incorporate secondary sources.

Secondly, draw upon the experiences of your associates and that of the company. You are so close to these experiences that you can speak of them with almost the same assurance that you do of your own.

Thirdly, interview persons who are versed in the field and discuss significant points with them. The exchange will help you to benefit by their experience and will stimulate you to see new relations or applications.

Fourthly, consult the literature of the field. These materials will stimulate your own thinking and help you to recall many experiences

that you have had that will be valuable supporting data. Some of the thoughts may give you insights that you have not had previously. Literature of the field always helps to broaden your perspective.

Fifthly, as you are developing your ideas, discuss them with your contemporaries. This will help you to clarify them and test them in the light of a cross section of experience.

Weigh carefully the sources that you consult and restrict your investigation to materials within the scope of your subject. Otherwise, you will spend considerable time investigating sources and gathering material that will be interesting but will not promote your theme. Take care to word your points so as to adjust them according to the information learned from the audience analysis.

D. *Arrange the data under the specialized function they best help to accomplish*

As the first step in arranging data within the formula pattern, insert the statement of your theme. This is your control sentence and before each point is inserted under one of the specialized functions it must be tested against the control sentence. If it complements the theme, it may be included. If it does not, it must be excluded.

As you arrange your first ideas under the specialized functions, it may seem somewhat difficult to know where to place them but as you gather more data, topical headings will begin to suggest themselves and the problem of where to place cards will become simplified. You will not encounter difficulty of placement in the body but you will in the interest and background steps of the introduction and the motivation and directed action steps of the conclusion. The reason is that these points are often interchangeable. For instance, you may decide to open your talk by stating the benefits or giving the specific purpose, and you may end your talk with the same material. Some speakers use the same material in the opening as they do in the conclusion and with considerable effect.

E. *After all data are gathered, rearrange them in outline form, starting with the body and following with background, summary, motivation, directed action, and interest*

After all the data are gathered, the next step is to arrange them in accordance with the standard pattern of an outline. The tentative organization of ideas under the specialized functions is an informal or pre-outline form and simplifies the final organization of the outline.

Why make an outline? An outline is the best form we know for the

orderly arrangement of ideas. As was stated earlier, points can be arranged in the outline in an order of relation, time, place, or value; or according to some other form of psychological arrangement.

As you develop the topical headings and subheadings and arrange the supporting material, you will find it necessary to delete some data. The ideas may be good as ideas but they do not fit the delicately interrelated thought pattern you are building. Or, you may find that a point can be used by rewriting it slightly or by combining part of it with another point.

Outline the body first since this is the heart of your message. The introduction and conclusion must be adjusted to the body. Conclusions cannot be drawn if the content of the body does not warrant them; and the introduction can only forecast what the body contains.

Next, outline the background. You may want to refer to the background in your summary step. Follow background with motivation, directed action, and the interest step.

Once your outline is complete, you should feel that no point could be used to greater advantage in any other part of the outline. A purist on outline form would go as far as to say that no item can be put in any two places of the outline. If the material used in a speech were purely informational, the same statement could be made. But since some of the material in a speech is of a persuasive nature, it may fit equally well in several places of the outline.

The second point to check when your outline is complete is that there are no gaps between the points. The talk as a whole must be a coherent unit.

A point of caution that every speaker must bear in mind is that he may not retain material in the outline if it destroys the unity. All of us are prone at times to keep ideas in a talk or insert them, even though they have no bearing on the talk, simply because we judge them to be worthwhile ideas or because they happen to be pet ideas.

Some speakers use the technique of digression for the purpose of expressing a prejudice, or indirectly complimenting themselves, or with the hope of profiting in some way. For example, a refrigerator expert was asked to give a talk on the theory of refrigeration—not on the refrigerator sold by his company. In the course of his talk he inserted favorable comments about the operation of his company's product and unfavorable comments about the operation of a competitor's product. Such practice is unethical in addition to being poor business sportsmanship.

When the outline satisfies you as to its unity and coherence, check it for timing. No hard and fast time breakdown for each part of the talk

can be given, but the following approximate division of time per part has proven successful and may serve as a guide.

TOTAL LENGTH	INTRODUCTION	BODY	CONCLUSION
5 minutes	1	3	1
10	2	6	2
15	2½	10	2½
30	5	20	5
45	7	33	5

Do not take too long before announcing the theme. The audience is always impatient with the speaker who doesn't come to grips with his theme early. Likewise, once you come to your conclusion, do not take too long to complete the talk. A well-planned outline eliminates both dangers and avoids anticlimax after anticlimax.

If the talk is too long, cut it willingly. It is good to remember that we can never tell the audience everything that we would like to tell them, so the elimination of a point here and there will not make much difference. Respect time, and the audience will respect you. Try never to speak over the allotted time.

In conclusion, outline your talk so that it will be easy to follow and easy to remember for both the audience and yourself. Outline the body of your talk first and follow it with the background, summary, motivation, directed action, and interest steps. Check to assure yourself that all ideas in the outline eventuate into a coherent unit and delete any idea which does not accomplish that end. Do not insert ideas because they are pet ideas or digress from the talk for personal gain. Time the talk and stay within the time limit. If too long, cut it without mercy.

F. *Recheck the theme to be sure that it is worded advantageously and accurately*

Recheck the theme when the outline is complete to be sure that it embodies the final content of the talk and that it is worded advantageously and accurately. Is it audience centered?

Decide whether you want to retain the statement of the theme in the declarative form or change it to the question form. If you change it to the latter, also question whether you should change the wording of the points of the body to question form.

You must further decide how you want to state the theme to the audience. Do you wish to give the full statement or do you want to withhold the specific purpose until you have had the opportunity to develop your arguments?

G. *Let the talk rest for a while and then ask check questions*

After you have worked on a talk just so long you lose a sense of perspective, and little relationships and points of coherence escape your notice. You have been too close to it.

Let the talk rest for a while—if only for a few hours. When you come back to it, you will look at it with a viewpoint more like that of the person who will hear the talk for the first time. You will find little things that you missed and you will wonder how you missed them. You may even find some major gaps or weak transitions. As you reread the outline, you may see relationships of ideas that you were not aware of previously and new possibilities of developing and illustrating ideas may suggest themselves.

Apply the following check questions to the completed outline:

What are my motives and objectives?

What are the listeners' motives and objectives?

What questions do my listeners have about my subject, theme, purpose, and plan of action?

Have the listeners any objections or prejudices?

Have I adequately answered the listeners' questions, objections, and prejudices?

Are my points or solutions arranged in the most effective order? Are they audience centered?

Are my points better stated in declarative or question form?

Is the theme worded accurately for my purposes?

Does the material under each specialized function help to accomplish that function?

Does the talk as a whole progress and hold interest?

Are the transitions from point to point or solution to solution clear and easy to follow?

Can the talk be delivered within the time limit allowed? If not, what can be eliminated with the least loss and without destroying the coherence and progression of the talk?

If I had to deliver my talk in half the allotted time, which points would I present?

If I were a member of the audience, would I consider this talk worth my time?

THE USE OF VISUAL AIDS

Visual aids are effective media and should be used whenever possible. They give a concreteness to the message that words alone cannot give. They are the objects, not symbols for the objects.

Listener understanding is promoted through aids. Many individuals can grasp ideas better, see relationships more quickly, and solve problems more quickly when the object is before them. They are eye

minded rather than ear minded. Understanding is promoted because the eye can attend a complex pattern and can grasp the relation of a part to the whole and the whole to the part almost at a glance or with little explanation. A speaker without aids is forced to deliver his thoughts singly, and the person who is eye minded is not always able to reconstruct the complex image through the words he uses. How often a person will say, "I'm sure I could have understood it, if only I could have seen it." This is not an idle statement.

Visual aids are also a decided help to the speaker in remembering his talk. They make unnecessary the use of notes. If a number of aids are to be shown, they can be prearranged on a display table, and when the speaker has finished discussing one, he moves to the next and the next until he has spoken about all of his aids. The Bell Laboratories have arranged an interesting talk on direct-wave telephone communication which is based on the use of about a dozen visual aids. The talk moves from one aid to another as the speaker demonstrates how the wave travels in a straight line, how it can be deflected by prisms, how it can be amplified by different type prisms, how the ray will pass through nonconductors of electricity as glass and wood, and how it can be stopped by conductors of electricity as water, copper, or the human hand.

A large variety of visual aids are available to the speaker—maps, charts, diagrams, tables, pictures, commercial posters, actual products and machines, models, slides, moving pictures, and the blackboard.

If possible, set up all visual aids before the talk. Moving picture projectors, slide film lanterns, and loud speaker systems should be set up early so that the electric equipment may be tested and the talk will not be delayed once the speech has begun. It is not always desirable to put up charts, tables, graphs, pictures, and posters in advance, but decide exactly where you are going to place or hang them so that there will be no delay when you wish to use them. Any loss of time permits the audience to converse; then you have lost their attention. The aids mentioned can be pre-positioned by using plain paper as a cover and attaching it lightly with Scotch tape. Provide your own thumbtacks, nails, electric cords, Scotch tape, etc. Do not rely on the chairman to provide these things for you. The successful use of your aids, or the talk for that matter, may depend on these incidentals. If they are not there when you need them, your efforts will fail proportionately. Materials placed on a table should be placed so that they face the audience. This eliminates the need of turning them before showing them.

The size of your visual aids is important. They must be large enough

so that every person in the hall can see them clearly and easily. If charts, tables, or graphs are used, keep them simple. Fine detail cannot be seen from a distance, and it tends to blur the main lines.

Place your visual aids near the center of the stage so that they are easily accessible. Do not so place them that you will have to turn your back to the audience to reach them.

Show visual aids from a height and in a position so that each person can see them easily. Try to picture to yourself how they will look from the audience's point of view. Pointing to objects on a flat table in front of you and talking about them does not satisfy the audience. They cannot see them. Lift the article so that all may see it. If the aid is small enough to be held in the hands, hold it directly in front of you with your hands and fingers at the back of the object so that the object is in full view. If you want to call attention to some part of the object, use a pencil as a pointer. In doing this, first locate the spot with your own eyes, then direct the pointer to the spot, and thirdly look at your audience as you explain. You must know the aid so well that you do not need to keep looking at it once you have directed the listeners to the point or area of attention. Even experienced speakers make the error of talking to the visual aid. Watch your audience to make certain that they understand what you are telling them about the aid. Take care not to look at your visual aids until you are ready to use them. The moment you look at them your audience will look at them, and they will expect you to begin talking about them at that point.

When you plan to demonstrate an article, you will find it effective first to tell your listeners about the object and what you are going to demonstrate; next, show them the object and point out anything which they should know about it; then, demonstrate.

If you use the blackboard, put the data on it beforehand, if it is practical. Writing on the blackboard and speaking at the same time has three disadvantages. First, the back is turned to the audience and the body usually covers some of the material from view of the audience; second, the voice must be reflected from the board; third, you cannot watch the response of the audience. If you must write on the board, write just a few words at a time so that you can speak directly to your audience most of the time. When standing at the right side of the board, hold your pointer in your left hand and vice versa. This enables you to face the audience squarely and hold eye contact with them. When moving toward the board, arrange to be close enough to it so that you can step backward toward it. Avoid turning your back to the audience. The same technique applies when showing slides or movies. Face your audience—not the pictures. In a darkened room

you need to increase your volume to compensate for the fact that the audience cannot see the actions of the speaker.

Distribution of visual aids to the audience should be avoided. Experience has proved that the passing of articles is a disturbance to the listeners and the speaker. Listeners do not attend to what the speaker is saying while they are inspecting an aid, and the speaker is disturbed by the fact that so many in the audience are not giving him their attention. Listeners also discuss the aid with their neighbors and disturb those about them who want to listen to the speaker's message. Aids may be passed if every member of the audience receives one and the speaker plans to discuss them. Do not give out aids if you do not intend to discuss them with the audience. If the aid is of such size that the members cannot see it clearly when you show it, invite them to come up to view it at the display table after the meeting, but do not pass it to them for their inspection.

Visual aids can complement words and be of real help to the listener and the speaker. How they are used determines their effectiveness.

PREPARATION FOR DELIVERY

The outline of your talk is now complete and you must decide how you intend to prepare for your delivery. First, should you speak with the aid of an outline? Second, should you write the speech, but speak with the aid of the outline? Third, should you memorize the written speech? Fourth, should you read the written speech? The author has no single answer. Individuals differ, and what is an adequate method for one may not be adequate for another.

Before we discuss the advantages and disadvantages of the preceding methods, let it be stated that the method of preparation recommended in this text has been that of a semiwritten nature. All ideas included in the formula plan have been written in brief, thereby making for more precise wording and better phrasing.

A. *Speaking from a completed outline*

If you have prepared a coherent outline and you fully understand your ideas and their interrelationships, you should be able to speak from it or even speak without it. The latter is preferable. Before doing so, however, you must think through your method of making your major transitions of thought. One way of doing this is to link the ideas by means of the headings of the specialized functions. You might open your talk by saying, "*Interest* was aroused. . . ." Next, "Before stating the theme of my talk, let me present several significant *back-*

ground facts." Then, "My *theme* is. . . ." Follow with, "I shall develop my theme by presenting the following *three issues:* first, etc." When you come to the conclusion, "Before discussing the benefits that the proposed solution holds for us, let me *summarize* quickly." Next, "What are the *benefits*?" And lastly, "Let us act. . . ."

The second step, if you are going to speak from the completed outline, or without it, is to think through your transitions to the subpoints and from subpoint to subpoint. If some of the transitions do not formulate themselves clearly in your mind, try writing them.

What are the advantages of speaking from a completed outline over speaking without an outline? First, the mind is free to respond to each successive idea; second, you can select your words and arrange them in phrases to fit the responses of your audience; and third, you can have interplay with your audience as you do in conversation. Your whole manner will be one of freedom, informality, and ease.

What are the disadvantages of speaking from a completed outline? There are no major disadvantages. The vocabulary may not be as selective as if the talk were written, and the phrasing may not be quite as smooth, but what the talk lacks in selectiveness of vocabulary and smoothness will be more than outweighed by spontaneity.

Prepare the outline well in advance of the delivery date. Go over it often so that the sequence of thoughts blends into a story form in which one thought leads into the next and suggests the next automatically. The ideas should come to your mind quickly so that you recall them without effort. You cannot deliver effectively if you have to struggle to recall the points in sequence.

Speaking without notes is the most effective way of delivering a talk. Speaking with the aid of a brief outline is second in effectiveness.

In business, because of the pressure of time, it is not always possible to master the memorizing of an outline; the written outline therefore must be relied upon to some extent as an aid to memory. It is better to have an outline on a 3 x 5 or 4 x 6 card than to be embarrassed by a break in thought. If a break should come, a glance at the outline will be sufficient to continue the thought.

B. *Writing the speech but speaking from the completed outline*

In the early stages of training many speakers feel more confident if they write their talks before delivering them. Even many professional speakers would not think of giving a talk without having written it first. These professionals never read their talks, but writing helps them to clarify their thinking. When they speak, they use an outline as an aid.

What is the advantage of the written speech? It may result in clearer details, better coherence, and more selective vocabulary.

It is difficult to say that the written method has major disadvantages, but caution must be exercised in its use. First, some individuals have an entirely different style of writing than of speaking. Consequently, if they attempt to hold closely to the written style, it is difficult for them to handle it orally. Secondly, there is danger that if one rereads the written talk, phrases are automatically half memorized. This state of memorization is more difficult to handle than if the talk were fully memorized. When delivery must combine spontaneous thinking with partial memorization, the speaker usually finds himself confused several times during the talk.

Writing the speech can be a satisfactory method but after the speech is written it should not be reread more than several times. Put your written speech aside and rethink your outline. Refer to your written speech only as you need to clarify a thought.

c. *Memorizing the written talk*

Experience shows that memorization of a written talk is an unsatisfactory technique. Let us approach the hazard of the technique from a statistical point of view. Suppose you are asked to deliver a thirty-minute talk and your average rate is one hundred and forty words per minute. This means that you will deliver four thousand two hundred words. In other words, you have four thousand two hundred chances of forgetting. The law of chance is against the memorizer.

There are few situations more embarrassing to the ego than forgetting in the middle of a phrase. It is as though the speaker were suspended in mid-air and grasping for something he knows is there, but he cannot find it. The mind of the memorizer can become so dependent on a certain word that he cannot rethink the thought when he fails to recall the exact word.

A young speaker at a speech convention who had memorized his material found himself in the embarrassing position where he had a break in thought. Try as he would he could not recall his word sequence. His audience suffered with him. In desperation he began to search for his manuscript. It wasn't in his inside coat pocket, it wasn't in either of his side coat pockets, and it wasn't in his back trouser pockets. Finally, he located it, on the table almost in front of him. He had become so confused in his embarrassment that temporarily he lost emotional control of himself and the situation. It wasn't that he had been negligent in his preparation. In his desire to do a perfect

piece of work he turned to the memorized talk. Unfortunately, the law of chance operated.

A speaker should not attempt to memorize his talk word for word. Even the trained actor who has the benefit of at least six weeks' rehearsal would hesitate to go through a play without the assurance of a prompter ready to help him.

Memorization has several other disadvantages. You cannot adjust your words or phrases to the responses of the audience. You must hold to a preplanned pattern. Unless you are exceptionally well trained in memorization, your talk will lack naturalness. Further, a memorized talk flows so freely in some parts that the words are spoken without the speaker's rethinking the thoughts. They appear not to be his words. They lack the vitality of active thinking.

Training one's self in the memorized talk alone is not practical for business. Much of your speaking will be extemporaneous and developing a dependence upon the memorized talk may make it difficult to speak upon call. Speaking from an outline pattern develops a certain readiness and the ability to think on your feet.

D. *Reading the speech*

There are times when the speech must be read. Not to read it would be folly. This applies to certain statements of policy, official documents, and controversial issues. If the talk is not read, the speaker owes it to himself and perhaps to his company to have a public stenographer record it in shorthand or have a voice recording of the speech made at the time of delivery. If the talk is scheduled to appear in the press or trade papers, copies should be made available to these agencies before the talk is delivered.

The practice of reading papers is more common before technical bodies than before nontechnical audiences. In view of the many negative comments heard about the reading of technical papers it is surprising that the societies continue to encourage the reading of papers. These papers are usually on a specialized subject and the writer, in order to protect himself at every point, overdetails and gives every possible condition and exception. Even to a technical audience this treatment of a specialized subject seems more detailed than necessary. The question period is generally the high point of the meeting. Here the author speaks to his audience directly.

Few written talks are more than seventy-five per cent as effective as are prepared extemporaneous talks. This is true in spite of the fact that the written talk may be better organized, have better style, and

have a more selective vocabulary. The loss is suffered because the reader is not trained to interplay freely with the responses of the listeners while reading. He does not reach out for a response as he does when he speaks extemporaneously and he does not maintain eye contact.

Reading is an art different from speaking. Few read as well as they speak extemporaneously. In extemporaneous speech the mind grasps the whole thought before speaking; in reading, the mind may not grasp the whole thought until the reader is part way in the sentence. Consequently, his reading may be a mere pronouncement of words. Reading, therefore, may lack the coherence, unity, and progression of the extemporaneous talk. Further, the reader may not be able to get his whole being to identify itself with the spirit of the talk as he can when he speaks from brief notes or without notes.

Since reading is necessary occasionally, how can it be done most effectively? First, hold in mind your goal and the progression of the main points which carry the talk to the goal. Second, use headings in your manuscript. If you have a half dozen paragraphs under a single heading, determine the key word or phrase of each paragraph and write it in the margin. One word or a phrase will bring the thought of the whole paragraph to mind before you begin to read it. Third, have an outline of the talk in front of you while you are reading to help you hold the whole talk in mind at all times. Fourth, be so familiar with the thought sequence that you need only to glance at the words. Avoid as much as possible keeping the eyes on the manuscript. Fifth, be sure to prepare your talk well in advance. You cannot expect to be familiar with the sequence of the final speech if you finish the writing a half hour before you are to deliver the talk. No matter how wide your background of the subject is, you must master the particular sequence in which you have organized the talk. It is a unit and it is that unit you must present to the audience. Sixth, consider using a flash card containing the main points of the body. Set it up on an easel and have it large enough so that everyone can read it easily. This will help the audience to follow the talk. Seventh, speak to stimulate and to evoke a response from your listeners just as if you were speaking extemporaneously.

In conclusion, the most effective method of speaking is to speak without notes. The second most effective method is to speak with the aid of a briefly written outline. Writing a speech helps to clarify thinking for some speakers but care must be taken not to reread the talk so many times that the material is in the half-memorized state. In general, the

written speech should be avoided, but if it is necessary, the speaker should hold eye contact with his listeners, interest himself in the material, and speak to evoke a response.

SUGGESTED ASSIGNMENTS

General Suggestion

Listen to several speakers and determine how thoroughly each has analyzed his audience by the effectiveness with which he related his materials to the background, needs, problems, hopes, aims, or goals of his listeners.

1. Assume that you have been asked to speak before a civic, business, or technical organization on a controversial, current issue—local or national in scope. Make the audience analysis of the particular organization by interviewing an officer of the organization and any other persons who can give you necessary data. Also, consult other sources you think might be helpful. Deliver the report of your analysis to your class.
2. Organize and deliver an informative talk in which you use two or more visual aids. Complete your audience analysis.
3. Write an informative talk and read it to your audience.
4. Write a five-minute action talk and deliver it from memory word for word.
5. Deliver a five-minute action talk with the aid of an abbreviated outline typed on a 3×5 or 4×6 card. Use visual aids.
6. Deliver an action talk organized for a specific audience which you have analyzed. Prepare your full outline using the specialized functions of interest, background, and theme in the introduction; main points or solutions, suggestions or recommendations in the body; and summary, motivation, and directed action in the conclusion. Use visual aids.

CHAPTER 24

Educational Talks

Since business talks are given to accomplish a general business purpose, they may be classified arbitrarily under the following general headings:

Educational
Report
Public Relations
Chairmanship

While these divisions are distinct, they are not pure in form and overlap at some points.

The structure best suited to each special type of talk is dependent upon its general purpose. The formula of specialized functions is flexible enough to meet adequately the needs of any of the special types of talks.

The great need for effective oral communication with line employees, technical and specialized personnel, supervisory personnel, executive personnel, customers, stockholders, government, the public, and business organizations and associations will be shown.

Modern business is rapidly becoming more educational and training-minded. In business, the term *education* means the imparting of both background information such as is furnished by the schools, and specific instruction in doing a particular job. The latter phase is sometimes referred to as training.

Educational talks for training, orientation, or promotional purposes are given to new employees as part of their induction. These talks are usually given by a member of the employment, training, or personnel department for the purpose of helping the new employee to feel at home, to know his services will be appreciated, and to understand the basic policies, procedures, and regulations concerning his employment. In some concerns, a member of top management gives the address of welcome and also gives a brief history of the company and its policies.

Induction talks may include information on company policies, safety

regulations, hospital services, cafeteria schedules, working hours, time clock regulations, passes, parking facilities, wages, method of handling personnel problems, locker room facilities, insurance plans, vacation privileges, recreational and social activities, probationary employment period, products manufactured by the company and any precautions necessary in handling them. The preceding information may be given the first day or over a period of several days.

Educational talks to line employees are largely instructional in nature, and deal with the particular jobs and those to which they will be upgraded.

Those given to technical and specialized personnel in the fields of time study, methods, manufacturing control, quality control, development, research, transportation, cost, accounting, statistics, finance, personnel, or advertising are somewhat broader in scope than are talks to line employees. Subjects include not only the specific work done by each group but include related problems: new products, methods, and processes developed within the plant and in the industry or business; and talks on human relations, and supervisory and administrative problems.

Educational talks to such supervisory personnel as supervisors, foremen, superintendents, and department heads may deal with the knowledge of materials, machines, tools, methods, processes, operations, rules, regulations, schedules, safety, functions, management organization, administrative problems, costs, quality; and skill in instructing, planning, and handling people.

Educational talks to executive personnel are of a broad nature to give perspective and understanding from a management point of view and are delivered by top executive personnel. They may deal with any of the workings of a business organization, such as finance, purchasing, manufacturing, distribution, accounting, personnel, and administration; or with competition, public relations, government, or the public.

Since it is essential that they be clearly understood, organization and detailing of ideas are of primary importance. First give the audience a summary of your talk. Use the Negro preacher's excellent technique. Develop the points in sequence in the body of the speech and avail yourself of any visual aids that will help the audience to comprehend your message. Use comparison or contrast freely. In the problem talks for technical, specialized, supervisory, and executive personnel the scientific method will prove best.

SUGGESTED ASSIGNMENTS

General Suggestions

Visit several educational meetings sponsored by industrial or business concerns in your community and observe how educational talks are presented.

1. Assume that you are to give an indoctrination talk to new employees about the history of your company. Interview a personnel director in your community to learn the history of a company or consult the library for such data.

2. Assume that you are to orient new employees in the products handled or manufactured by your company. Interview a sales manager, plant manager, or store manager in your community to learn about the products. In the presentation use visual aids such as products, slides, or movies.

3. Assume that you are the personnel or employment manager and that you are to present to new employees the policies and practices of the company relative to employment, transfer, seniority, promotion, and wages. Secure the necessary data from a personnel or employment manager in your community.

4. Develop a talk for technical or sales employees on a new product manufactured by your concern or to be sold by your concern.

5. Develop a talk for foremen or department heads of your organization on the subject of the necessity for developing understudies for each supervisory position.

6. Develop a talk for a supervisory group on the management organization of the company, and explain the functions and interrelationships of the various functional heads. Use a management organization chart as your visual aid.

7. Develop a talk for technical employees on statistical quality control.

8. Develop a talk for a board of directors on the need of establishing a department of public relations. Interview a public relations representative of a company or a member of a management counseling organization in your community for data.

9. Select as your audience a group in executive training and explain a current bill before Congress which will affect either the company or the industry or both if it is passed.

10. Select as your audience a sales organization in a particular company and review briefly what competitors are doing in the way of building new products or in sales promotion.

CHAPTER 25

Report Talks

The oral report is used in every phase of business activity. It is a flexible instrument which serves just as well for a shop or office activity or problem as for a problem of top management. When experience data or a perspective of a comprehensive study is needed quickly by a number of persons, the oral report is the most efficient method of communication.

Types of oral reports are numerous and varied. Most may be given in oral as well as in written form. Often, they are presented in both forms. Some executives prefer that all reports of any consequence be written first. They feel more certain that a thorough investigation of the facts will be made and, of course, the written form provides a permanent record. Some executives do not read more than the recommendation and conclusion, but always call for an oral report before a committee, followed by a question period. Generally, this is a condensation of the written report and covers it in its entirety or just the portions requested.

The speaker who is to present the findings of a factual report should also be prepared to give recommendations and perhaps even a plan of action. It is not unlikely that in the question period he may be asked for his opinions. They may not be accepted, but the members of the committee are interested to know his ideas. While a speaker is presenting a report, the committee may be sizing him up as a candidate for promotion.

Oral reports are made by both line and staff members of an organization. Reports on such policy or management subjects as pension plans, group insurance plans, wage studies, plant expansion or relocation, reorganization, new products, increase of the sales personnel in the field, status of competitors, and morale are made by members of the staff organization. They require time, travel, and specialized knowledge.

Reports on production problems relative to quantity, quality, rejections, service, safety, and so forth are usually made by a member of

the line organization. The data may be gathered, however, by a staff man.

Oral reports are requested not only by top management but by all levels of supervision. A foreman may request his assistants to give at his weekly meetings oral reports on spoiled work, backlogs, schedules, or any other special problems. A superintendent or department head in turn may request the same type of report from his foremen. And a chief expediter, order supervisor, chief engineer, office manager, accountant, or any other supervisor may request the same from his assistants.

All oral reports should be factual and some may be persuasive. Executives occasionally ask line personnel to make a study of a particular problem and present it with recommendations to a committee at a later date. If the line man has a recommendation which he believes to be of real value, he will present it persuasively, but his data must support his recommendation. Then if the committee does not agree with him he can face the question period with equanimity.

A thorough audience analysis is particularly important in the persuasive type of report talk. If it is to be given before a committee, analyze your recommendations in the light of the point of view of every person on that committee. For example, suppose you have a committee of three members—a production representative, a safety engineer, and a cost accountant—and you want this committee to approve the manufacture of a new product by the factory organization. Your audience analysis might show that the production representative would demand three things of your recommendation. First, can the same equipment be used to manufacture the new product? Second, can the same personnel be used? Third, can it be manufactured so that the production employees will not have to work any harder and will not suffer any loss of earnings? The safety representative is always willing to approve new products provided he can take care of the safety hazards by some mechanical means. He is likely to oppose if the responsibility for safety must be taken by the operator. The cost accountant welcomes new products which show the possibility of increased earnings, but he must be convinced that the new product can be manufactured at no greater cost than similar products. With such specific information you can present your recommendation to best advantage. Know beforehand what the reactions of each listener will be and then adjust your material to suit them.

Determine also whether or not your audience is thoroughly familiar with the subject of your report. Sometimes you will find that they are not interested in it and do not even want to take time to hear it discussed.

Committee members are not always informed on your subject. Members of a committee change, or your report may be on a special item known to only a few in the company, or you may have developed a new method, process, way of marketing, cost system, or method of control. Your objective may be to get an appropriation for further study or permission to install your idea as a standard method or procedure. If your audience is not familiar with the subject or is not interested in it, it is better to know beforehand so that you can prepare your report accordingly.

The organization of the report depends upon its nature. If it is informational, the point system may be satisfactory. If the report involves a problem, you may begin by stating your recommendation at the outset. Most committees request that the recommendation be given first so that they may view the report in the light of the action they will be asked to take. If there is no established custom, you may prefer to hold the recommendation until the end. After the recommendation follow the usual procedure. Give adequate background; show what the present method, system, or process is; present the new idea; compare it with the present idea and show its points of superiority; ask for action.

SUGGESTED ASSIGNMENTS

General Suggestion

Read several reports in business texts or investigate several problems for an understanding of the need for keen, accurate, selective observation of a situation; accurate recording of data; the value of examining, interpreting, and evaluating the data; and need of ability to make sound recommendations in the light of the findings rather than on guesses.

1. Assume that you have been on a field trip to determine customer satisfaction relative to
   (a) quality of company products
   (b) competitive products
   (c) delivery service

   Upon your return you are asked to give an oral report of your findings to a committee consisting of representatives of the sales, manufacturing, and quality control departments.
2. Report on your visit to the plant or office of another company where you discussed the safety program, time study procedures, hospital practices, a certain type of business machine, method of using budgets, techniques of expediting orders, or packaging of fragile materials.
3. Report on the findings of a survey made of a cross section of employees to determine their satisfaction with the plant paper or magazine, e.g.,

whether or not they read it; what they read in it; what they like; what they do not like; what other subjects they would like to have included; etc.

4. Give an oral report on a business research study that was made to learn the trends and the future of a new field (such as plastics, electronics, glass, or television) in order to determine what significance they would have relative to the future sales of your company.

5. Give an oral comparison report on the management organization of your company and that of a competitive organization, with recommendations for changes in your own. Your recommendations may include the addition of a research laboratory, or labor relations department, or department for quality control, or department of product control, or a department of business research.

6. Assume that you are a general manager or executive vice-president and have been asked to give a summary report on the status of major functional divisions of the company—finance, manufacturing, distribution, personnel—to the executive committee.

7. Assume that you are a department head and that you have been asked to give a report on the new ideas or approaches that you plan to put into operation within the next six months; or report on the progress of plans which you introduced within the last six months.

8. Assume that you are the president of a company and you are to give your annual report to the board of directors, including the progress and problems of the past year and your plans for the new year or next five years.

9. Assume that you are a plant engineer and that you have been asked to recommend to the board of directors that the present building be enlarged or that a new building be erected.

10. Assume that you have realized the need of the adoption by your company of a pension plan or health and accident plan and you have asked to be given time to present your reasons and suggestions.

CHAPTER 26

Public Relations Talks

Present-day management, especially that of industry, is vitally concerned with its public relations. The term *public relations* as used at present in business is broad in scope. It includes relations with employees, customers, stockholders, the government, the public, and national business organizations. Thus the individual who plans to speak in business must be prepared to speak in a variety of situations outside the confines of his own organization.

The aim of business is to retain the good will of all these groups. Every expression by business as a whole and by each of its representatives affects its relations with one or several of the groups.

The variety of purposes of speaking before public relations groups may be arbitrarily designated as announcement, recognition, and promotional talks.

ANNOUNCEMENT TALKS

Announcements by all departments of management relative to work, plant expansion, recreational activities, or community projects are daily happenings in business and industry. While many of them are made by means of bulletin board notices, a goodly number are made orally before small or large groups. Some are routine in nature and have no bearing beyond the department or plant, while others are of such importance that their effects spread far beyond the audience to whom they were delivered.

Why are some announcement talks difficult to plan and deliver? The answer is that they deal with change, and human beings resent change unless all of the benefit is on their side. The announcement is not simply a matter of imparting information. The speaker must foresee the possible repercussions that will result. The announcement may arouse considerable emotion in each listener, which may be further stimulated by interaction of the feelings of the group.

Specifically speaking, the announcement may deal with changes in

policies, procedures, and regulations that may result in change in production schedules, shifts, earnings, vacation schedules, coffee or lunch, or smoking periods. Such changes may affect the listener's feeling of security, his status, his ego, his earnings, his privileges, or his plans. If he loses or suffers by the announcement, he may resent it; if he gains, he may appreciate it or he may feel that the gain or added pleasure is not sufficient.

Some of the less emotionally charged announcements pertain to social and recreational company activities such as plays, musical concerts, baseball games, basketball games, tennis matches, banquets, dances, or parties; or they may pertain to community projects such as the Community Chest, American Red Cross, or other agencies. Announcements of this type need not be so carefully phrased as those listed in the preceding paragraph. However, they may stimulate prejudices in the listeners.

The announcement is one of the most neglected types of oral communication. It appears so simple that little preparation is given to it; consequently, the speaker often neglects to tell all the necessary facts or fails to take into consideration the emotional response of the listeners. It is not uncommon to hear groups of listeners congregate after hearing an announcement and say, "Whose idea is this?" or "Why is it being done this way?" or "Why weren't we told that this was being planned?" Such comments mean that the speaker has failed to make a thorough audience analysis and to plan his presentation carefully.

The announcement must be clear, and it must be persuasive if necessary. It must satisfy the same requirements for clarity as must the educational talk—who, what, why, when, where, and how. Secondly, it must satisfy the emotions if it requires a change. This is best accomplished by simply and honestly stating why the change must be made. The listeners may not like the change but if they understand why it had to be made they may realize that under the circumstances it was the best solution.

The routine announcement is merely a matter of imparting information by a point method, but the persuasive announcement dealing with change of policy, procedure, rules, or regulations calls for the problem sequence of organization. You must present background to show that a difficulty exists and that objectives cannot be attained by present methods; you must define the problem, investigate it with your audience to determine causes, and advance a reasonable decision or solution.

When you want to introduce a new policy to the group who established the old policy and who will resent a change, you can show

them that the old policy met the problem of its period; now we are faced with new conditions and must try to establish a policy that will meet the needs of the present and future as well as did the old policy for its period.

The persuasive announcement is one of the most delicate talks to deliver. While to the speaker it may be routine notification of a decision, and therefore pure information, to the listener it may be pure emotion. He thinks only of how it will affect him.

An announcement that is a pronouncement and is delivered with a "take it and like it" attitude is an insult to the intelligence of the listeners. It is an invitation to disturbed morale. State your announcement clearly, simply, honestly—and give your listeners reasons.

RECOGNITION TALKS

A recognition talk is one in which the speaker expresses appreciation, commendation, or good wishes.

The aim of the recognition talk is to arouse a pleasant feeling of satisfaction in the listeners. It is based on the general purpose *to impress*, and may develop into action which offers or encourages pleasant relationships or constructive action in the future.

Recognition talks are given in a number of in-plant and out-plant situations. They provide a means of recognizing long faithful service; of expressing a friendly welcome to persons returning after an extended trip or service elsewhere, to individuals joining a company, transferred from one department to another, or visiting a company for a tour of the plant; of expressing a friendly farewell to individuals leaving an organization to retire, or to accept a position elsewhere or at a subsidiary; or of recognizing those who have been promoted, who have given some special service, or who have invented or accomplished something outstanding; of expressing praise of the accomplishments of an employee social organization; of complimenting outgoing officers of a club or society; of expressing praise, assurance or good wishes at birthday parties, anniversary celebrations, dedications, or memorial services in the company, community, customer plants, or at national business organization meetings.

The recognition talks mentioned are somewhat difficult to break down into distinct types because appreciation, commendation, and good wishes are at the base of each. Some of them are catalogued as eulogies, addresses of welcome, farewells, testimonials, and inspirational talks. Presentation and acceptance of gift talks are associated with them too. Many of them serve as after-dinner talks.

The subject matter of the recognition talks is less factual than in educational and report talks. It can be reduced to recognition of the positive qualities of mind, body, and spirit; and to character, ideals, goals, sentiments, rewards, and accomplishments. These are usually treated as they have been expressed in the past, how they are expressed at present, and how they can be expressed in the future.

Recognition talks are built on words like the following: *loyalty, honesty, faithfulness, service, cooperation, interest, reliability, industry, thoroughness, friendliness, consideration, sincerity, courtesy, generosity, sympathy, patience, kindness, justice, fairness, courage, freedom, democracy, energy, drive, emotional control, optimism, judgment, insight, imagination, creative ability, leadership, vision, goals, rewards,* and *accomplishments.* Any single word listed or any grouping of them can serve as the theme word or words of your recognition talk. Apply them to the in-plant or out-plant situations cited earlier.

Sincerity must prompt the words of appreciation, commendation, or good wishes, and the praise must be warranted. An audience does not want to be praised or recognized for something which it did not do, or did not want to do, or which is not worthy of recognition. If the praise given does not come from the heart, so to speak, it will not only displease the listeners but will turn them against the speaker.

Recognition talks are most effective when the speaker knows the audience well, has lived with them, has been identified with their needs, hopes, and aspirations, and is liked personally by them.

Recognition talks can also be effective when delivered by a person of high position who may be unknown to the audience or known to them by name only. It would be blind not to recognize that there are times when words of recognition by an outside speaker of note are more effective than those delivered by a person closely associated with the audience.

The organization of the recognition talks is not nearly so rigid as in informative talks. Often they are narrative in form and consist of a succession of individual stories or incidents. Sometimes they are based on the definition of one or several theme words and developed by illustrations.

In summary, recognition talks are based on the general purpose *to impress* and are given for the purpose of expressing appreciation, commendation, or good wishes. They are used in a great variety of situations both in-plant and out-plant. Their subject matter can be reduced pretty largely to points dealing with qualities of mind, body and spirit, character, ideals, goals, rewards, and accomplishments. Words of recognition must be sincere or hearers will discount them

and lose respect for the speaker. Organization is more informal than in informative talks. "Man does not live by bread alone," and recognition talks are the medium for providing that something other than bread—appreciation.

PROMOTIONAL TALKS

A promotional talk is one in which the aim is to further a desired end. In its limited meaning it has been restricted to the sales function. In its broader meaning as used in this section, the end striven for may benefit the speaker, his company, the community, or business itself.

Promotional talks are given largely for the general purposes of influencing opinion and action. Their goal may be to arouse emotions in the listener. Sometimes emotion is aroused by a first talk and action is sought in the second.

These talks are used to advance customer relations, community relations, and business relations on a broad scale. The student may very well adapt the suggestions in this section to employee relations.

Customer Relations

The purpose of the promotional talk in customer relations is to continue good will, increase sales on standard, established items, and promote new or specialty items.

When promotion of direct sales is the objective, organization of the talk may follow the standard sales sequence of attention, interest, desire, conviction, and desired action; or reveal the need, clarify it, personalize it so the buyer wants to do something about it, meet his need, motivate him, invite desired action.

When its use is somewhat more than that of building good will only, as it is when speaking to a group of foremen, customers, superintendents, department heads, technical or executive personnel on the manufacture of the product, the history and policies of the company, care of the product, ways of getting better service and longer life from the product, and new methods of using the product as demonstrated by research or field tests, the organization is that of the informative or educational type of talk. The one point of variation is that values are implied or stated to a greater degree than in the straight informative or instructive talk. When the audience is a distributor group, they are not interested in hearing about the strength of their organization. They want to know what the supplier is doing to assist them in the way of research, increased sales force, new warehouses, advertising, and further training.

Visual aids and demonstrations should be used freely in the direct sales talk or the talk to maintain and build good will. Sell the performance.

Community Relations

Community responsibility is rapidly being accepted as one of the functions of modern business. It includes active interest in the welfare and progress of the community.

Community Welfare Talks

Today, concerns are encouraging and training representatives to participate in such community organizations as the American Red Cross, Y.M.C.A., Salvation Army, civic clubs, community improvement bodies, social agencies, recreational movements, hospitals, youth clubs, and religious groups.

Participation in these and similar welfare agencies often calls for leadership responsibility and the ability to speak before large groups. Community organizations by their very nature are promotional undertakings, and participation in them requires the furthering of their purposes.

These purposes are advanced by promotional talks. Their organization may be that of the sales sequence but more often the inspirational sequence which embodies the sales sequence is more effective:

Create an ideal, set a quota or goal
Dramatize the value of its accomplishment
Express belief that the end can be accomplished
Cite other groups who have accomplished it
Express faith and confidence that the group will accomplish it
Minimize the difficulties
Present a simple plan of action
Challenge or invite to action

Welfare promotional talks require careful preparation. The success of the project requires the voluntary effort, time, and gifts of a large number of public-spirited citizens. They cannot be ordered to exert effort as can be done in business, if necessary. They must be stimulated or inspired to want to do what needs to be done. Appreciation and commendation as used in the recognition talks can be used to great advantage with these groups.

Community Progress Talks

Another activity in which business men are invited to participate is that of promoting the industrial, social, and cultural progress of the

community. Participation is usually the result of being asked to serve on a committee or board as chairman or administrative officer. Such city, state, or national committees may deal with the promotion of industry, labor-management relations, airport facilities, safety, traffic, housing, conservation, education, recreation, libraries, or museums.

The speaking requirements of community progress activities are so varied that no one type of speech organization can be suggested. The speaker must have command of all types. The oral report type of talk and the persuasive talk based on the problem method of thinking are probably used more frequently than the other types.

Community Information Talks

In addition to participating actively in the welfare and progress organizations of the community, business men are expected to speak on topics of business before community clubs, church groups, service organizations, and business and professional clubs. The subjects of these talks are confined to the speaker's work or to some phase of his company's activities and are primarily of an educational or interest nature. If the speaker gives an interesting and timely talk he not only promotes the program of the organization but he also wins good will for himself and his company.

A talk before the community organizations named is not a sales talk. It should not attempt to motivate the listeners to buy your product. To attempt to do so would be a deviation from the purpose for which you were invited to speak. Also, to condemn competing products, personnel, or organizations in the course of your talk would be displeasing to the audience. If you have the opportunity to compliment competitors, you may do so. Hold to information primarily and tell your story simply, sincerely, and briefly.

Business Relations Talks

Progressive managements feel a responsibility to promote their own businesses, industry, and business advancement in general by affiliation with local, state, and national business and trade associations, institutes, and societies.

The subjects and situations covered by such organizations represent the entire range of activities common to practically all businesses. Any individual who actively participates in this field must be able to present any type of talk and even to blend several types into the same talk.

SUGGESTED ASSIGNMENTS

General Suggestion

Listen to several speakers to observe particularly the technique of influencing listeners emotionally as well as mentally—whether the purpose be to accomplish a tangible or intangible objective.

1. Assume that smoking privileges during working hours were extended to all employees one month ago. The time wasted within that month has been excessive and several fires have resulted. Address your employees and announce that smoking privileges will be discontinued, or that abuse of the privilege will not be tolerated.
2. Assume that employees are enjoying paid rest or paid lunch periods but that they are leaving their work five minutes before scheduled times and are returning up to twenty minutes late. Discuss the problem with them at a group meeting.
3. Deliver a talk to employees urging them to contribute to the Community Chest.
4. Announce to employees a change in work hours such as reducing the lunch period from sixty to thirty minutes; or changing the eight to five shift to a seven to four shift.
5. Assume that you are a department head attending a dinner in honor of a faithful employee who is retiring after thirty-five years of service. You have been asked to express the company's appreciation for his faithful service and to present a gift which was purchased by the company and his fellow workers.
6. Assume that a dinner is being given to recognize a fellow worker in another department who has been promoted to the head of his department. You have been selected to be the main speaker and are expected to congratulate him, to assure him of the support of his fellow workers, and to wish him success.
7. Assume that thirty business leaders who are attending a national convention in your city have come to visit your plant. Before they start on their conducted tour you have assembled them in your directors' room for the purpose of giving them an address of welcome, to tell them something about the plant trip, to introduce the officers of your company, and to invite them to lunch after the trip.
8. Assume that a member of your organization has just been elected to the presidency of a national business or professional association or has been granted an award for outstanding work in the field of research by such an association. You have been asked to announce this recognition to all employees at the annual service awards dinner of your company, and to present him with a gift of appreciation from the company.

9. Prepare a talk for dealer or other distributor outlets telling them of a new product, new sales campaign, more liberal discounts, large-scale advertising program, new markets, or introduction of new sales aids to help them sell more goods and increase their profits.

10. Assume that you are the chairman of the membership committee of a local service or business club and that your committee has set a goal of one hundred new members. You have been asked to stimulate the club members to enroll the hundred new members.

11. Assume that you have been asked as chairman of the airport committee of your city to present to the state commission the need of expanding the facilities so that your city may take advantage of the opportunity to become a major commercial airport and thereby bring new business to the state.

12. Assume that a church club in your community has asked you to tell the history of your company, the uses of your product or service, the marketing of the product, or the expansion plans of the organization.

CHAPTER 27

Chairmanship

The speech by a chairman is often one of the most difficult to make. Because the chairman does not give the main talk, his function is sometimes considered unimportant and the introductory remarks a necessary evil.

The planning of a well-balanced and well-timed program is generally the responsibility of the chairman. The audience looks to him for the success of the program. Even though he may not plan all of it, he should be consulted before the final program is completed.

In this chapter the two major functions of chairmanship will be considered—introduction of speakers and handling of the question period.

INTRODUCTIONS

The purpose of the introduction is to create a pleasant atmosphere for the speaker. It should make the speaker feel that the audience is pleased to see him and is eagerly looking forward to hearing his talk; it should make the audience feel that the subject is important and that the speaker is prepared to handle it adequately.

Preparation

Your collection of data should include the speaker's accomplishments, his interest in his subject, the importance of the subject to the audience, the nature of the speaker's work, the concern for which he works, his relation to the audience, and his interests.

The following points of caution should be borne in mind when planning the introduction:

Do not overpraise the speaker, yet a well-deserved compliment is in order.

Do not narrate things about his past that have no bearing on his subject. He may have a number of accomplishments to his credit, but if mention of them will evoke an emotional tone different from that of his subject they will be a hindrance rather than a help to him.

Do not develop the title of the speaker's talk to the point where you might infringe upon his material.

Do not state that the speaker was your second or third choice.

Do not take more than two or three minutes for the introduction.

Avoid stereotyped openings like, "We are indeed fortunate to have with us this evening . . ." "It is a great honor and an unusual privilege . . ."

Do not use stories on racial or religious subjects which might offend the speaker or members of the audience.

The content of the introduction should include: the speaker's name, the title of his talk, his business connection, the announcement of the question period if there is to be one.

The introduction may also include any of the following points:

A humorous story with a point

Personal incident in the life of the speaker, humorous or which has significance in relation to his subject

Accomplishments of the speaker—positions, articles, books, projects, experiments, patents, etc.

Relation of the speaker to the chairman, or the organization

Reference to the company or industry the speaker represents

Background of the subject or events leading up to the present discussion

Reference to the title of the talk

Significance of the talk for the audience

Length of talk

The chairman is expected to be at the place of meeting to greet the speaker when he arrives. If, as chairman, you cannot be there personally, appoint a fellow officer. Do everything you can to help the speaker feel your hospitality. How he is received will influence how he will deliver his message. If he is led to believe that he is there only to fill in time, he will not give his best. Let him know that you consider his subject important and that you are pleased that he is the one to discuss it with the group.

Be prepared for him in every way. If he realizes that you consider his being there as important, he will do his best to merit your appreciation of the situation. One of the situations that a speaker dreads is to arrive at the place of meeting and find that no one present knows that he is on the program; just before meeting time an individual rushes into the hall and asks if he is the speaker. After he acknowledges that he is, the individual, who did not even introduce himself, informs l im that he had no intention of attending the meeting but the chairman just telephoned that he could not be there and so he was going to have the ordeal of introducing him. A situation of this kind can affect even an experienced speaker to such a degree that his talk will be a failure.

Presentation

In addition to presenting a suitable introduction in a friendly manner and in a tone in keeping with the subject of the speaker, the chairman has the additional responsibility of preparing the audience. This means that the audience should be seated and ready to give undivided attention, that waitresses should no longer be clearing tables, that ventilation and lights are satisfactory, and that there are no noises immediately outside the meeting place.

If any of the foregoing conditions are not satisfactory, they should be taken care of before the speaker is presented. It is better for the chairman to lengthen his introduction until suitable conditions do exist than to subject the speaker to disturbing conditions. A speaker is a guest and is entitled to all the courtesies that are customarily extended to a guest.

QUESTION PERIOD

Responsibilities of the Chairman

The question period can be the high point of a program as it often is on such radio programs as the American Forum of the Air and Town Hall. When the subject is controversial, as on both these programs, the question period tends to be more active and spirited.

Much of the success of the question period is in the chairman's hands. He is there to control and conduct it in an organized, democratic manner; to help the speakers; and to clarify questions which members from the floor may have difficulty in expressing. At times he needs to be firm, but he must always be fair, tactful, and helpful. Five steps are suggested to aid in conducting an orderly and effective question period.

Formulate questions

While listening to the talk the chairman should formulate at least two questions which he can ask the speaker at the opening of the question period if the audience does not advance questions. There are times when the audience is too timid to ask questions or when the conclusion of the speaker's message was so compelling that they are still under the spell of it. After the chairman has asked two questions, the audience is usually stimulated enough to begin.

Plan the question period

Determine at the end of the speech how much time you can devote to the question period and how many questions you can handle during that time. Suppose you have time for twelve questions. Plan to divide the audience into four sections and allow three questions from each. You should let the

audience know which section may ask the first questions, which next, and so on. Alternate from one side of the room to the other. A plan will save much confusion because members of the audience will not be rising in different sections at the same time demanding to be recognized. A plan also prevents one person from rising several times to ask a question before others have had a first opportunity. If time remains, after all sections have been recognized, then you may open the question period to the entire floor or repeat the same procedure of recognizing one section after another.

Give other necessary instructions

The character of the audience determines somewhat the other instructions which need to be given. These may include:

That persons stand and speak clearly when presenting their questions

That all questions be presented to the chairman and that if several speakers are on the program that the questioner state to which one the question is directed

That members of the audience confine themselves to questions. Speeches from the floor will not be permitted

That all questions be limited to two or three sentences of explanation as a maximum

That only questions related to the subject, that are not of a personal nature, that do not seek professional advice, and do not attack the personality of the speaker will be recognized by the chair

Restate the question

Every question should be restated by the speaker or the chairman to be sure that every member of the audience has heard it. In this way the attention of the entire audience will be held at all times. Once a question is asked it no longer belongs to the questioner but becomes the property of the audience. The question need not be restated in the exact words of the questioner. In fact, if it can be simplified, the chairman should do so.

If a question is not relative to the subject, rule it out. If it is a borderline question, the chairman may ask the speaker if he wishes to answer it.

If a member of the audience starts to make a speech and refuses to state his question, let him know that you cannot grant him further time and ask for the next question. The audience will take care of the speechmaker if he doesn't stop.

When ruling a question out, be tactful. You can say, "Your question is an interesting one and I wish I could ask the speaker to discuss it but it doesn't come within the discussion tonight."

If the question asked has been answered by the speaker in his main address, the chairman must decide whether to pass it by or ask the speaker to answer it again. Generally the latter is preferable.

If the chairman does not understand the meaning of an involved or technical question, the speaker may ask the chairman for permission to handle it. In this case the speaker should restate the question before answering it.

If the speaker has not fully answered a question, the chairman may ask him another question.

The chairman should not answer a question from the floor.

Close the question period

If the meeting must be held to a time schedule, bring the meeting to a close even though there are other questions to be answered. It is better to close before all questions are answered than to try to prolong the period beyond spontaneous demand. Thank the speaker, thank the audience for their questions, make any brief announcement about following meetings if necessary, and adjourn the meeting.

Responsibilities of the Speaker

The speaker should keep his answers brief so that as many questions as possible can be answered.

His answers should be delivered to the audience as a whole and not to the person who asked the question.

When he does not know an answer, he should admit it rather than give wrong information. He may offer a personal opinion on a question but he should tell the audience that it is an opinion and that he does not have the facts at hand to support it.

Be tactful in all answers. Do not insult the intelligence of the audience or chide a questioner who sincerely asked a foolish question.

SUGGESTED ASSIGNMENTS

General Suggestion

Go to hear or listen over the radio to several chairmen conduct forums, debates, symposiums, or panel discussions. Observe the technique of introducing speakers, handling the question periods, and closing the meetings. Notice particularly how problems in the question period are handled by the chairman.

1. Act as chairman to a lecturer. Prepare the introduction, handle the question period, and prepare closing remarks.
2. Act as chairman for a forum speaker who will present either the pro or con position on a current business, political, or social problem. Prepare a brief introduction, handle the question period, and give the closing remarks.
3. Act as chairman of a debate forum. Have two speakers speak on opposite sides of a controversial question. You may, if you wish, have a one-minute rebuttal for each or permit each speaker to ask the other two questions before opening the question period to the audience. Prepare closing remarks.
4. Act as chairman of a symposium. Have three speakers on the program; the subject of which is noncontroversial, with each speaker handling a phase of a subject such as the financial, sales, and manufacturing; or have three speakers approach the subject from the point of view of his

vocation—as economist, sales manager, and exporter. Plan your introduction, handle the question period, and prepare closing remarks.

5. Act as chairman of a panel discussion on a controversial personnel topic like seniority, job evaluation, or merit rating. Have three to six speakers participate with half representing the pro side and the other half the con side. Prepare a series of questions and have at least one speaker for and one against discuss each question. Limit the answers to two minutes. Next direct questions written by the audience to the panel speakers and let several answer, if they wish. Prepare your introduction of the members of the panel, introduction of the subject, and your closing remarks.

CHAPTER 28

Introduction to Special Types of Business Conversation

Before developing the techniques of conversation, let us state the values and limitations of oral communication and compare and contrast some of the general characteristics of conversational methods with those of platform communication.

VALUES AND LIMITATIONS OF CONVERSATIONAL METHODS

In Chapter 19 it was stated that oral communication is the preferred means of communication in business because it is faster, easier, more personal, and often more economical. It has two further advantages. It is preferred when the opinions, judgments, and ideas of a number of persons are desired and when no written records are wanted. The latter is often desirable during the early stages of the development of new products, machinery, processes, and contemplated agreements or contracts. Until patents are applied for or action is completed, it may be better to have progress and negotiations exist only in the minds of the interested parties.

The conversational method, however, is not without its limitations and disadvantages. These can be very costly. The greatest loss is waste of time. It is so easy when discussing a problem to spend an additional five or ten minutes conversing pleasantly on a non-business subject; or to find some excuse for walking several blocks within the plant to speak personally with a person who could be reached by telephone. Speaking to individuals personally is much overdone. Carried to excess this can result in long automobile rides, or costly and time-consuming trips by train or air. In many of the latter cases a letter would be just as effective.

A second misuse is the failure to organize thoughts clearly before presenting them. Consequently the discussion is confused, and time is

wasted in clarifying the subject before the desired objective can be realized.

A third misuse is failure to control emotions in discussion with others, with the result that human relations are strained and cooperation is lessened.

A fourth misuse is to substitute oral communication when written communication should be used. It is even good practice after arriving at oral conclusions with another to commit them to writing, send them to him requesting his initials, and have them returned for your records. Oral and written communication have their unique values and neither should be used in place of the other when one is more effective.

COMPARISON AND CONTRAST OF PLATFORM COMMUNICATION AND CONVERSATIONAL METHODS

A comparison of good platform communication with good communication through conversational methods shows that both require:

A worthwhile subject and a definite goal
Logical development
Thorough thinking and sound judgment
Strong character and wholesome personality
Sympathy, understanding, courtesy, and mutual respect
Friendly, confident, businesslike manner
Absence of physical and vocal mannerisms
Adequate voice volume, directness, interest-holding rate, clear enunciation, and unit phrasing
Specific words, correct grammar, effective phrasing, and acceptable pronunciation
Directness and communication
Persuasiveness without domination

By way of contrast, conversation does not demand as much of the participants in some ways as does platform speaking. In platform communication the entire responsibility for the success of the talk rests on the speaker, while in conversation the responsibility is shared. On the platform the speaker must be in full command of the subject and his conclusions beforehand, while in conversation one of the individuals may expect the other to furnish the conclusions or hope that the conclusions will develop during the talk. Further, platform speaking calls for the ability to hold attention for five to forty-five minutes, while conversation seldom requires one person to hold attention for more than a few minutes. On the other hand, conversation demands greater readiness, greater ability to adjust to the attitude of others, and ability to control spontaneous thinking.

CHAPTER 29

Over-the-Desk Speaking

A good share of the conversation which occurs in business every day may be termed over-the-desk speaking. It is an informal type of spontaneous conversation in which one individual may ask a question, make a comment, or express an opinion to another at his desk or over the telephone. Generally, two persons are concerned in this relationship but occasionally up to four or eight may participate when the subject is of a problem or planning nature.

The latitude of subject matter in over-the-desk speaking is unlimited and the subject may be of major or minor importance. Several subjects may be discussed in succession. In general, subjects are current in nature but may be long range as well.

The purposes of over-the-desk speaking, as was partially stated in the first paragraph, are to obtain, give, exchange, discuss, or act on information, orders from superiors, suggestions, impressions, problems, opinions, advice, or approvals.

Over-the-desk conversation is purposeful and employs the same expanding general purposes as does platform communication—to inform, impress, convince, and actuate. Like platform speaking, it aims to communicate ideas and feelings to others so that a desired objective will be accomplished. For instance, an employee who requests a transfer, a change of shift, or an increase in wages is trying to communicate his ideas and feelings to his employer with the hope that his desired objective will be attained.

The effectiveness of communication in over-the-desk speaking is at least equal to that of any other form of speaking. It has the advantage that the listener is usually more familiar with the background of the subject and can question the speaker freely.

One might easily be led to believe that communication in over-the-desk speaking is always effective. Unfortunately, this is not true. The interest that each person has in the conversation varies with conditions. Communication is most effective when the conversation relates to some-

thing the participants need to know or want to know; when they are not emotionally disturbed by some experience in their outside lives or by something on the job; when they are not pressed for time; when they are fully familiar with the background of the subject; when the subject under consideration is discussed in an orderly manner; when there are no interruptions during the discussion; and when all persons participating have confidence in each other and are willing to think cooperatively. Comprehension and communication suffer proportionately when the reverse of the foregoing conditions exist.

PREPARATION

Preparation for over-the-desk speaking varies with the situation. Orderly thinking and logical organization are essential to clear presentation and accomplishment of the objective. If the objective is the answer to a simple question, no preparation aside from a clear wording of the question is necessary; if the objective is to secure a trainee for an educational course offered by an out-of-state academic institution, then data such as the following must be prepared: content of the course, institution, length of course, beginning date, tuition, date of registration, transportation, hotel, meals, expense money, etc.; if the objective is the solution of a problem, the preparation will be as extensive as the problem demands. It may require:

An investigation of the present situation for symptoms and causes
Definition of the problem
Determination of the objective
Drawing up of tentative possible solutions
Exploration of the solutions
Tentative or final arrival at a solution
The plan of action

PARTICIPATION

Successful participation in over-the-desk speaking requires in addition to a knowledge of its values and limitations and the points presented earlier under the heading of comparison and contrast, the following qualities:

Willingness to think cooperatively with others to accomplish the objective
Open mindedness to new ideas and viewpoints
Ability to divorce personality from the subject
Ability to adjust to the changing stirred-up attitudes of other participants
Ability to reason objectively under the stress of conflicting viewpoints
Ability to hold to the point under discussion

Ability to recognize the moment when further discussion of a point is unprofitable
Ability to return others to the point of discussion
Ability to listen and give eye attention to the person speaking
Willingness to participate and share the responsibility of shaping the thought

As soon as a group assembles to discuss a problem, the leader or chairman should begin the discussion. He should follow the problem method of thinking used in preparation. The discussion should be opened by a clear statement of the problem, if the problem is known. If it is not known but is only in the "felt difficulty stage," the present situation and events leading up to the felt difficulty must first be reviewed to find the cause. Next, the objectives must be completed and the tentative solutions set up. This should be followed by an investigation, evaluation of the solution, and arrival at a tentative or final solution. If the solution is final and the group needs to take action, the plan of action must be developed. Many over-the-desk conversations have as their only objective how to carry a decision into action.

The solution of a problem is not too difficult. It is the persons involved who are sometimes difficult. Any group of capable men after assembling and evaluating the facts can work out a reasonable solution. The real problem is getting some persons to accept a reasonable solution. There are a few individuals who oppose every solution which they do not originate. They try to introduce a substitute plan and fight for it even though they know it is inferior or no better. There are others who insist on changes in every plan proposed just because they want to have a hand in shaping it. There are still others who in a conference will always take a view opposite to the one advanced by a person whom they do not like. And there are a few who wait to see which solution is gaining favor and then take the opposite view for the purpose of testing it. Others withhold opinion until their superiors express a preference and then join in wholeheartedly to support it.

By and large those with difficult personalities are few in number. Most men cooperate well and their opposition to any idea advanced is made by the yardstick, "Will this be the best solution for the company?" They are emotionally mature and are not concerned with satisfying their egos first. But there are a few who are emotionally immature, who want to dominate every situation, and who think first of their personal glory. What others accomplish or contribute is always minor and what they themselves do is always major. These individuals never go to a conference with an open mind. They arrive at a decision beforehand and plan how they will maneuver the discussion so as to

put the others at a disadvantage or on the defensive. As soon as the conversation opens, they literally "take the ball," present their conclusion with an air of finality as the one and only, and almost hold up to ridicule the need for any further discussion.

The strategy of such immature individuals is soon discovered and others find ways of neutralizing them or of carrying out the final decision in their own way so that the company may enjoy the greatest benefit. The counterstrategy is, of course, to present a plan before such individuals have the opportunity to present theirs; or to interrupt them early in their presentation on a weak point and exaggerate its importance, thereby implying that that which would follow would be unsatisfactory; or to get the conferees to agree beforehand on a solution and "railroad it through." All such counterstrategies are very unfortunate because winning over a personality becomes more important than arriving at the best decision as a result of exploratory, cooperative thinking.

Advancing at the outset of a conversation the background facts and a sound solution or possible solutions based on study is good procedure. It saves time because the group needs not investigate the entire subject.

What are some of the problems encountered in small group over-the-desk conferences?

Conferees do not report promptly for conferences.
Conferees waste time by discussing current news before taking up the problem or they discuss other problems first.
Conferees do not come prepared for the conferences.
A conference is called without telling the conferees its purpose.
Conferees do not hold to the point under discussion.
The problem is not defined clearly at the outset.
Conferees belabor a minor or pet point.
One or two do most of the talking.
One or two prefer to say nothing.
Conferees do not think logically together.
The conference is not conducted on a time schedule.

TYPES OF CONVERSATIONALISTS

A few words ought to be said about the different types of conversationalists whom one meets in business, if for no other reason than to call them to the attention of beginning students of business. By and large, individuals are very cooperative and business conversations are pleasant experiences. One does meet an occasional person who must be catalogued as curt, cold, unfriendly, sarcastic, egotistical, precise, be-

labored, aloof, militaristic, or belligerent. These types are not difficult to get along with. They have strong points or interests and can be reached through them without too much difficulty. In business one learns to take people as they are and not as they should be. We cannot always choose those with whom we work. We must work with those who are there and work just as cooperatively as if they were our chosen social friends. The progress of the business is the first consideration; satisfaction of our personalities, secondary.

Five special types of conversationalists will be considered. The first is the one who has an analogical mind or uses analogy to evade a direct question. The moment a subject is presented to him he is reminded of a case that illustrates some point which you started to discuss. This analogy reminds him of another, and that of another, and so on. Each case gets further away from the main thesis. It is difficult to know whether his mind just operates that way, or whether he is trying to give himself time to think out an answer, or if by talking on and on he expects you to forget what it was that you originally started to discuss, or whether he hopes to reduce the importance of your point by his analogies. Regardless of his motive or lack of motive, you cannot afford to take three times as long as you should or leave without the information or answer you want.

A suggestion for meeting the problem presented by the analogist is to arrange a fifteen-minute appointment with him and arrange one with another person immediately following. This gives you a legitimate reason for telling him at the beginning of the interview that you have just fifteen minutes and that you want to ask him, let us say, three questions. It is even helpful to have the three questions typed and to give him a copy. Then take the initiative and ask him the first point blank. Do not let him go off on specific cases. When it is answered, move to the second and then to the third. With this type of person it is absolutely necessary to direct the conversation at all times or he will lead it off on a tangent.

The second type is the individual who has a flair for detail. He is so anxious that you understand every detail and every bit of background or that every condition is covered, that what should be a five-minute conversation stretches out into an hour. Most of the time you are a listener. He means well but does not realize that you do not need or want all the research or explanatory details.

A suggestion for meeting the problem of the detailer is the same as that for meeting the problem of the analogist. Plan an appointment immediately following his. Of course you can also say at the outset that the last time he very kindly gave you an hour of his time, but that this

time you have only one or two brief questions which won't take more than ten minutes. The latter technique should be used sparingly.

The third type is the individual who telephones you to come to his office immediately without telling you why. When you arrive, he asks you point blank for a decision on a problem that he has been studying for hours or days; or he has a group in his office who have come to an impasse in their discussion and he wants your opinion on a critical point. Quite often the point is on a topic that you haven't considered for some time and he gives you no background before asking the question.

Two suggestions for meeting this problem are offered. First, do not answer until you have asked him a few questions to bring out what the problem is, why it is being considered, and what the objectives are. With this information you are in a better position to venture a suggestion. If you answer without this information, you may give a good one but it may not fit the particular set of circumstances. The result is that you may be considered impractical. Second, you can ask him what the subject is before you say that you are free, so that you can at least think about it from the time you leave your office until you arrive at his.

Fourth is the individual who builds a snowball type of conference. He is usually a person of rank who wants information about some problem. For purposes of illustration let us assume that he is a general superintendent who wants to know why production on a certain item is delayed. He starts his snowball by calling the head of production to his office; the latter tells him that production is held up because the only machine that can turn out the particular item is down for repairs and that the equipment engineer promised it would be in operation two days ago; the equipment engineer is called in and he states that he can't understand the delay because he told the superintendent of the machine maintenance department that it was a rush job; then the superintendent of machine maintenance is called and asked to come to the general superintendent's office immediately; when he reports, he says that he knows it was promised but that the purchasing department hasn't secured the necessary parts; so the head of the purchasing department is called—and so it goes, on and on. Meanwhile the time of valuable men has been wasted sitting around in the general superintendent's office while the blood pressure of the latter has risen as the snowball becomes larger and larger.

The solution to this situation is for one of the persons called to take the initiative. For instance, the production head can say that he does not have the answer but that he will investigate immediately and report back in ten or fifteen minutes. This takes the lead away from the

general superintendent and provides the opportunity of tracking down the story by telephone within a few minutes.

The fifth type is the individual who never agrees fully with the group on any decision or plan of action. He refuses to take a definite stand. He protects himself against the possible negative results of every decision by saying, "I don't agree entirely but since the rest of you want it, I'll go along with you." This gives him the opportunity, if the idea isn't successful, of saying that he had serious doubts of its practicability from the start; if the idea is successful he shares in the glory. By using this method he is never wrong.

A suggestion for handling this person is to direct the conversation in such a way that he is the one who must advance the decision. However, this technique is not very successful, for he knows the tricks too well. He will usually say, when asked for his decision, "I haven't made up my mind yet. What do you propose, Mr. Smith?"

Some groups have brought this type of fellow into line by letting him know that they were aware of his technique. They have told him, "Every time this group has made a decision you have straddled it—either you take a stand with us or you propose a decision." Group pressure is worth a trial.

In conclusion, over-the-desk speaking is an informal type of spontaneous conversation which may occur on the spur of the moment or may be planned. The subject matter is unlimited and may be concerned with current or long-range subjects or problems. Its purpose is to obtain, give, exchange, discuss, or act on information, orders, suggestions, impressions, problems, opinions, advice, or approvals. It is as effective a medium of communication as any other form of speaking but is limited by the participants' need or wish to know, their emotional equilibrium, the pressure of time, their familiarity with the background of the topic, logical progression of the discussion, interruptions, and willingness of the group to cooperate. Preparation varies with the importance of the situation. The solving of problems is sometimes less difficult than the handling of the personalities involved. The emotionally immature participant is the exception rather than the rule. Poor conversational habits can result in a considerable waste of time. The following points are the marks of a good conversationalist:

He prepares for every over-the-desk conference no matter how simple it is, so that he may help accomplish the objective efficiently and effectively.
He reports promptly for any meeting.
He does his best to have the conference start on time.
He avoids all unrelated subjects.
He holds to the point under discussion.

He helps hold others to the point of discussion.
He does not prolong the discussion of a point when no further progress can be made.
He listens attentively.
He participates when he can contribute or ask a pertinent question.
He welcomes ideas other than or contrary to his own.
He helps to develop the thought logically and progressively.
He is courteous and respects the viewpoints of others.
He is persuasive without being dominant.
He maintains emotional control.
He assumes responsibility for the conclusions of the group.
He is willing to change his thought or compromise if the situation warrants it.

In this chapter and in Chapter 28 we have attempted to acquaint the student with the values and limitations of the conversational method and also the fundamentals of good conversation. In the following chapters on Telephone Speaking, Interviews, and Planned Conferences, the fundamentals will be applied but will not be rediscussed.

SUGGESTED ASSIGNMENTS

General Suggestion

Observe critically in your daily conversations why some individuals are more effective than others in communicating their messages and accomplishing their objectives. Also, observe your own mental and emotional processes as you communicate or listen. Use the points suggested in this chapter as a guide to analysis.

1. Assume that you have attended a lecture on atomic energy, electronics, machine design, labor relations, wage incentives, transportation techniques, taxes, or sales promotion, and that you heard one or two thoughts or a point of view expressed which you think worthwhile sharing or discussing with a fellow worker. Explore the idea as to its application to your organization.

2. Together with two others plan to interview your personnel director for the purpose of persuading him to provide six horseshoe courts to be used during the noon luncheon period. Assume that he has refused this request twice previously.

3. See the head of your research laboratories, sales department, or financial department, and ask him to provide three lecturers from his section to participate in a lecture discussion course given for the technical men of the factory organization. Tell him what subjects you want discussed and what material you would like to have each speaker cover.

4. Assume that a transportation strike has stopped your regular means of shipping and that the vice-president has asked you, as his assistant, to

call immediately a conference of the traffic manager, sales manager, foreman of shipping, and the labor relations manager to determine what action should be taken.

5. As secretary to the appropriation committee notify a department head that his request for $300 to remodel his office has been rejected, but that the committee is willing to consider an appropriation for the remodeling of his whole department.

6. Assume that you are a foreman in a factory. See the plant engineer and present the need for installing a blower system in your department to provide adequate heat for the coming winter.

7. Assume that you are a credit manager and that you have a new employee who at the end of four months is unsatisfactory. See the employment manager and tell him that you want to release this man. In the interview the employment manager claims that your assistant has not given this man proper training and he tries to persuade you to keep the man and give him better supervised training.

8. Assume that you have ordered some needed machine parts through your purchasing director and that he has promised delivery day after day. Now, you need them in order to continue your production. Your patience has reached its limit and you see him for final action.

9. Assume that you need a supervisor but that you haven't anyone in your department who would be able to handle this job to your satisfaction. Try to persuade the superintendent of another section who has a man you would like to have for the position but whom you know he does not want to release because of his value to him.

10. Assume that management has given approval to build three tennis courts for employees and you are asked to organize a committee to see the project through to completion. Call your committee to formulate plans.

CHAPTER 30

Telephone Speaking

The importance of the telephone as a medium of communication cannot be overestimated. It is a quick and efficient means for transmission of routine business transactions and for important relations with employees, customers, stockholders, the government, the public, and business and professional organizations.

Some idea of the importance of the telephone in American life is suggested by a recent report of the Federal Communications Commission which shows that there are over 31,000,000 telephones in the United States. Local exchanges handle about 100,000,000 calls each day or an average of 70,000 calls in any one minute. In addition, there are over 5,000,000 toll and long-distance calls each day. If only fifty per cent of the daily calls are business calls, we can readily understand the tremendous importance of the telephone as a medium of business communication.

The effectiveness of the telephone as an agent of good will with the outside and as a means of building interplant and interoffice morale is dependent upon the manner in which it is used. To the customer calling, the individual who answers is the company. A satisfactory telephone service is one that is prompt, pleasing, accurate, and complete. These aims can be accomplished through a proper knowledge of how to answer the telephone, how to talk on the telephone, and how to prepare outgoing calls.

HOW TO ANSWER THE TELEPHONE

Immediate attention to the telephone call shows the person calling that you are ready to give prompt service and attention. The call should be answered after the first ring. A caller seldom waits longer than five rings, and if he does he is slightly irritated by the time the call is answered. Waiting time on the telephone seems long. Important calls can be missed by not answering promptly.

Open your conversation by an identifying word or phrase spoken in a friendly, businesslike manner. Let your voice reflect the fact that you are glad to receive the call. If you receive calls directly from the outside, the name of the company and your name should be given, for example, "Smith Company, Mr. Brown speaking." On calls that clear through the switchboard operator or on inside calls, the name of the department and your name may be given or your name alone may be sufficient, as "Auditing department, Jones speaking," or "Jones speaking," or "Jones." It is wasting time to open the conversation by saying "Hello," or "Yes?". Such words tell the caller nothing. Use of your name gives the opening a personal note and lets the caller know immediately that he has the right number and the right person. When answering somebody else's telephone, an acceptable response is, "Mr. Smith's office, Mr. Brown speaking."

Occasionally it is necessary to transfer a long-distance call that has been misdirected to you. It is better practice to complete the misdirected call yourself if you can than to transfer it to the right person. If you do, be sure to tell the caller to whom he should direct his future calls so that he may have complete service. If you transfer the call through a private switchboard, inform the person calling that you are doing this. Then move the receiver rest up and down at the rate of once per second until the operator answers. Ask her to transfer the call. Be sure that you are transferring the call to the right person. If you are in doubt, tell the operator the situation and she may be able to help you.

If it is necessary for you to be away from your desk, be sure to make arrangements to have your telephone answered. Leave word with the secretary, switchboard attendant, or other person at a neighboring desk as to when you will return, and whether or not you may be reached on another line. Failure to notify a secretary when leaving one's desk is a form of discourtesy to the secretary. She cannot do her job well if she has not the proper information at hand when answering calls. Her inability to inform those calling is an indication that her superior does not conduct an efficient office.

HOW TO TALK OVER THE TELEPHONE

Until television is perfected and combined as part of the regular telephone equipment, the human voice will continue to be all important. Until that time, tones of the voice, volume, rate, inflections, enunciation, and pronunciation must convey personality.

The telephone is a mechanical instrument designed to operate within

certain physical laws and these must be recognized when speaking into the transmitter or listening through the receiver. The telephone is made for personal use and its transmitter is not as sensitive as are some radio microphones which pick up sounds from a considerable distance. If it were so sensitive it would be impractical.

In order to transmit your voice properly, keep the mouthpiece directly in front of you with the lips not more than one-half inch away. Moving the mouthpiece to the side or under the jaw will decrease its efficiency considerably. Your listener will have to ask repeatedly what you have said, or may misunderstand your message.

Speak naturally. Raising the volume of the voice is not only unnecessary but makes it difficult to understand and unpleasant. It is unnecessary to speak loudly if the lips are in proper relation to the transmitter. The instrument is designed to carry the volume and pitch of ordinary conversation and favors low tones rather than high.

The rate of speaking should be somewhat slower than that used in normal conversation. Telephone experts recommend one hundred and twenty-six words per minute. The listener cannot interpret your speech through the eye as he can when he sees you, and therefore needs to have the message delivered at a slower rate. This is especially important at the beginning of the conversation until the subject is established.

Enunciate your words clearly, giving vowels and consonants their proper contacts and value. Distinct sounds cannot be produced with clenched teeth or lazy lips. Never speak while chewing gum or holding a cigar, pipe, or pencil between the teeth.

Personal interest in the other person is reflected in the voice. Momentarily drop whatever you are doing when the bell rings, and give your undivided attention to the person calling. Treat each person as though his call were the most important call you handle. Speak with him, not at him. Let him feel that you want to be of service in every way. Not only should this type of service be extended to customer calls, but the same attitude should be expressed to your own outside representatives who call, and to in-plant personnel with whom you may deal daily. Be as friendly one minute before closing time as you are the first thing in the morning. Consider every call an opportunity.

The same positive attitudes that were presented earlier in this text under the standards of platform communication are the standards of telephone communication—friendly interest, sympathy, helpfulness, courtesy, directness, respect, sincerity, and responsibility. Negative attitudes irritate in telephone speaking just as they do in other forms of speaking. Attitudes of inattentiveness, superiority, impatience, disrespect, belligerence, lack of interest, unreliability, procrastination, and so

forth arouse the same response in the other person and lead to poor relationships.)

In the course of conversation use the other person's name at suitable places and remember to put in the "thank you's," "you're welcome's," or "I'm sorry's." They keep the conversation from becoming impersonal or matter of fact—especially with the person whom you have never seen or the person who is calling you for the first time.

Avoid making the other person wait at any time. Seconds waited on the telephone seem much longer. Delays irritate and are costly to the company. Always inform the person waiting why the delay is necessary. If you know beforehand that the delay may take two minutes, ask the other person if you may call back as soon as you have the information or can locate the person wanted.

Interruptions should be avoided. However, do not hesitate to interrupt in a courteous manner if you have missed a point which is necessary to carrying out what the other person wishes.

Careless expressions as *yeah, yap, aha, huh, O.K., alrighty, bye-bye* should not be used. Whistling or talking to a person next to you while listening, tapping the transmitter case with a pencil, or rustling papers are marks of discourtesy as well as poor practice.

A pleasant close accomplishes two things. First, it completes the present relationship in a spirit of harmony; and secondly, it establishes a friendly condition for the next call. Be sure before hanging up that the conversation is completed. If you do accidentally hang up while the other person is still speaking or has reopened the conversation, call back immediately and apologize. It is customary in business when speaking to a customer to let the customer or the person called hang up first. Always replace the receiver quietly. Slamming it will send a sharp noise into the ear of the other person.

HOW TO PREPARE OUTGOING CALLS

The success of the outgoing call is dependent upon its planning. Organized thinking is just as important in telephone speaking as it is in other techniques of speaking.

The first step in planning is your objective. Ask yourself, "Why am I calling? What information do I want or do I want to give?" Once this is established you can decide how you need to organize it and present it. Sometimes consideration of the person who is to be called is more important in your planning than the subject to be discussed. Determine how much knowledge your listener has about the subject. If it is new to him, he must be given proper background. If a number of questions

or points need to be discussed or if several subjects are to be considered, it is good practice to record these on a piece of note paper before dialing.

Be sure of the correct number before dialing. When the person called answers, identify yourself unless you call him so frequently that identification is unnecessary. Next, announce the subject to him. Do not ask him a question immediately which calls for an answer or decision unless both of you have been working on the problem and are familiar with it. Give him pertinent background before asking him for an answer. It must be remembered that the person called may have been concentrating on a subject entirely different and he needs a moment or two to shift his thinking from one subject to another before he can begin to understand. If you plan to discuss more than one subject with him, tell him so at the beginning of the conversation. Then take up the subjects one at a time.

When asking a secretary or switchboard operator to place a call, be sure to take it as soon as the called party has answered. If for any reason you cannot wait because it is delayed, let the operator know where you can be reached or tell her to cancel the call. It is irritating to be called, asked to hold the line, and after three minutes told that the person who called cannot be located.

Personal calls should be restricted to emergency calls only. This keeps the lines open for important business calls. Studies have shown that in some concerns as many as fifteen per cent of the outgoing calls were personal business.

SUGGESTED ASSIGNMENTS

General Suggestion

Observe critically why some individuals are more effective than others in communicating their messages and accomplishing their objectives. Also observe your own mental and emotional processes as you communicate or listen. Check your mechanical use of the telephone. Use the points suggested in this chapter as a guide to analysis.

1. As president of your company, telephone your auditor and request a report on all credits extended to customers for goods returned within the last three months. Also request that the report be organized according to products and that a special list be made of those customers who have had more than three credits or a total dollar credit of one thousand dollars or more.

2. As sales manager of your company, telephone your district sales manager in another section of the country and inform him that you have slow-moving stock on hand in the amount of $100,000 which you want

to get out of the warehouse before the next inventory thirty days hence. Instruct him to sell this at a reduction of 25 per cent.

3. As a foreman or a department head, telephone an employee who has been absent frequently without good cause and who has failed to report for work for the past three days. He has failed to notify you in accordance with the company policy. You have learned from his neighbor, who works in your department, that he has been on a hunting trip and was expected home today. Inform the employee that you want him to report at the superintendent's office the following morning at 8 o'clock.

4. Assume that you are a manager of a manufacturing plant in Boston, Massachusetts. One Saturday afternoon you receive a telephone call at your home from a production manager on the west coast asking if you could ship two thousand pounds of raw material by air freight express out of New York at midnight. He needs the material to operate his plant on Monday. The west coast manufacturer has never purchased from your company although you know that your sales department has tried for two years to get his business. The request for air delivery was made because the regular west coast supplier of the customer failed to supply as promised and upon inquiry said he could not deliver for another five days. Your plant is closed but you promise to deliver. Make the necessary telephone calls to the personnel in your organization to render this special service. Telephone the foreman of the proper department and ask him to go to the plant immediately, prepare the material and take it to the packing department. Have him arrange with the chief of the plant guard to permit him to take a truck out of the company garage. Second, call the foreman of the packing department and ask him to go to the plant immediately and pack the material for air freight express shipment. Third, call the traffic manager and tell him your problem. Ask him to arrange for transportation to New York and for space on the midnight plane.

5. Assume that you are a personnel manager working in a company which exercises compulsory retirement at sixty-five years of age. A machinist who is somewhat slow and of only average ability is to be retired soon. He consults you and says that he would like to work another year or two because his income from social security and the company pension plan will not take care of the financial responsibility involved in helping to send the two sons of his deceased daughter to college. Telephone an employment manager in the city whose concern has no age limit for retirement and try to secure a job for this machinist.

6. Assume that you are the chairman of a committee which is in charge of the monthly meetings of a personnel directors' club and that it is your responsibility to try to secure the speaker chosen by the committee. Telephone the head of the state department of workmen's compensation and invite him to speak on the law itself, on workmen's most frequent

complaints, on suggestions for employers in handling difficult cases, and on possible future changes in the law.

7. Assume that a group of comptometer operators have reported to their supervisor that they were being paid less than other comptometer operators in the city who were doing the same work. You are in charge of wage control and job evaluation for your company, and the supervisor asks you to make a survey by telephone of six of the leading companies in the area to learn what they are paying their comptometer operators.

8. Assume that you are a purchasing agent and have been asked to purchase ten desks. Telephone three leading concerns to determine comparative style, quality, price, and delivery.

9. Assume that the board of directors has decided that the company will install a pension plan and that an insurance counsellor (not the representative of any one insurance company) should be engaged to study the company's problem and needs. You, as assistant to the president, have been delegated to investigate which of six counsellors should be engaged. Telephone them in order to determine whether or not their experience fits your needs and invite those who appear qualified to visit you for a personal interview.

10. Assume that you are a real estate agent and that you have the type of factory property that you have learned a large out-of-state corporation is about to seek in your city. Telephone the plant engineer of the company, discuss the property, and invite him to see it.

CHAPTER 31

Interviews

The interview is an over-the-desk conversation, but is personal and confidential, is usually planned as to content or sequence or approach, and is arranged by appointment.

Numerous types of interviews are used in daily business, but this chapter will confine itself to the employment interview, the periodic employment review interview, the personnel problem interview, and the exit interview. The last two are definitely problem interviews, and the periodic employment review may develop into a problem interview.

All interviews should be conducted in private so that the applicant or employee feels completely free to express his opinions and feelings.

The relationship should be one of informality, freedom, friendliness, and helpfulness—that of two coworkers sitting down to discuss mutual interests. The employee should feel assured that what he discusses will be held in strict confidence and that his frankness is appreciated.

The following lists of do's and don't's are suggestions which apply to all types of interviews:

DO'S

Hold the interview in private and when you are not pressed for time.
Use the interviewer's name.
Respect the interviewee's intelligence.
Encourage free expression.
Ask questions casually.
Ask questions which show an interest or which help to clarify points.
Listen patiently to the whole story and do not anticipate.
Try to see the problem from the employee's point of view.
Look for the *why* of the problem. Dissatisfaction often is not caused by the reason given.
Handle the problem as a problem and keep it separate from personality.
Discuss the problem impartially.
Lead the employee to arrive at a solution by himself.

If the employee is angry or sarcastic, avoid the same attitude.

If nothing can be done about a problem, tell why nothing can be done. If something can be done, do it immediately.

If the problem cannot be solved at the time because additional facts are needed, close the interview. Take special note of the last remarks of the employee. Very often the real difficulty will be revealed at that time. He wants to leave a final point with you which justifies his presenting the problem.

Keep confidential any personal facts.

DON'T'S

Do not hurry the employee in the telling of his story.

Do not do all the talking. Let him talk. Until he gets rid of his emotion, you cannot appeal to his reason.

Do not jump at conclusions. Wait until you have all necessary facts. If further investigation is necessary, withhold decision until it is made.

Do not sympathize with the employee in a personal problem to the degree that you intensify the problem for him and he begins to feel sorry for himself. Sympathize, but lead him out of it.

Do not pass off any problem as unimportant. To the individual it is the most important thing at the moment.

Do not ridicule an employee for an unfounded "gripe."

Do not force a change of viewpoint on the employee. Persuade him.

Do not accuse an individual. If blame must be brought to his attention, let the facts do it.

Do not imply a negative feeling about another employee involved in the problem. If two employees are concerned, do not make a decision until both have been interviewed.

Do not promise or imply that you will take action which you do not intend to take.

Interview procedures follow much the same general sequence:

Step 1. A friendly greeting followed by a friendly exchange of ideas on some general subject of mutual interest

Step 2. A statement of the purpose of the interview

Step 3. Discussion of the problem and an attempt to arrive at a satisfactory decision and plan of action

Step 4. A friendly closing of the interview

Step 5. Post-interview action or follow-up

EMPLOYMENT INTERVIEW

In the employment interview two or more individuals exchange information, ideas, hopes, plans, and aspirations freely for the purpose of determining whether they can come together on a work agreement which will be mutually beneficial.

This interview is a cooperative activity in which the employer is

seeking a suitable permanent employee and the applicant is seeking a suitable permanent opportunity for his abilities. The employer appreciates the privilege of interviewing the applicant and the applicant appreciates the privilege of being interviewed. This type of interview is not a bargaining relationship in which the employer is trying to buy services at the lowest rate and the applicant is trying to sell his services at the highest rate. There are considerations beyond money for both. The discussion may result in a lifetime association, and something in addition to good earnings is essential.

Since you may function as an employer interviewing applicants as well as being an applicant, we shall consider both circumstances. It is not the purpose of this discussion to treat the employment interview thoroughly but rather to give only a few of the fundamentals necessary as a basis for thought.

Preparation

The part that speech plays is influenced by the problem of the employer and the problem of the applicant. Let us consider the problem of the former first. His apparent problem is that he needs a man to fill a job of certain specifications. It might appear that his only responsibility is that of finding a man whose abilities meet the specifications. Actually, the job specifications may be the minimum requirement. He may have the additional problem of selecting men who in the years ahead will be able to handle jobs of greater responsibility. Therefore, he must analyze his over-all problem before interviewing any individual by asking such questions as the following:

Can we use a man whose abilities are no greater than the present job requires?

Do we want a man who is versatile and who will be able to do a number of jobs in the department but who does not need supervisory ability?

Do we want a man who is a specialist and who will develop the job?

Do we want a man who will start at the bottom but has the capacity to become a supervisor in the department?

Do we want a man who has administrative ability and ability to lead people who may eventually be considered as head of this department?

Do we want a man whom we will start in this department but who can be trained and advanced to different departments so that he will learn all phases of the business, and eventually become head of an important section or perhaps become a member of top management?

Such questions as the foregoing must be considered by any concern that has its eye on the future. The applicant usually is not aware of the full problem of the interviewer. This explains why an individual well suited to a particular job available may not be hired. He may lack the

potentialities of assuming greater responsibility in future years. It is the function of the interviewer to assist the line organization in assuring strong leadership for the future—men of character, personality, emotional maturity, drive, judgment, insight, perspective, vision, leadership, and capacity and willingness to assume responsibility.

After the interviewer has decided on the type of man he needs, he is ready to prepare leading questions which he wishes to ask the applicant. These should be phrased so that the applicant does not need to answer *yes* or *no* as though he were taking a true-false examination. They should permit him to discuss them or give his opinion. As he handles this type of question, the interviewer will have the opportunity to observe his quickness of response, his articulateness, his orderliness of thinking, the quality of his ideas, his attitudes, his intuition, and whether he is "firm in the core," sincere, and direct. The following are representative questions asked by interviewers:

Why have you selected this company? Are you familiar with its reputation, its products, or its policies?

What type of work would you like to do? Why?

What subjects did you like best in college? What did you like about them? What were your grades in college and what position did you hold in your graduating class?

Did you enjoy your last place of employment? How did you get along with your fellow workers and your superiors?

What was the nature of the work that you did on your previous job?

Have you carried any supervisory responsibility? What was the nature of it? How did you get along with your men? Did they come to you with their problems?

Do you belong to any business, professional, social, or community organizations? Have you held office in any organization?

What are your recreational habits?

What are your reading habits?

Are you planning any further study?

Do you like this part of the country? Does your wife like it? Would you be willing to be transferred to another section of the country? Would your wife be willing to move?

Have you offers of employment from any other concerns?

If you accepted employment here, and then received an offer at a higher salary from a concern with whom you are negotiating, would you leave to accept it?

Now let us consider the problem of the applicant. What does he want?

He wants work suited to his physical, mental, and emotional abilities, his education, and his experience.

He may want to become identified with a concern that is just starting, in

which security is uncertain, but in which the opportunity for advancement will be quicker if the concern is successful; or he may want to become identified with an established, progressive concern in which security is more certain, opportunity available, and advancement is assured if he earns it.

He wants fair earnings commensurate with his ability to produce.

He wants working conditions acceptable to his standard.

He wants to work with people whom he will like and can respect.

He wants to feel that he will be wanted, needed, and appreciated.

He wants to feel that he will be able to contribute to the success of the enterprise and that his work will be of help to his fellowmen.

He wants protection in case of illness or accident and provision for his retirement.

In addition to thinking through what he wants, the applicant needs to prepare data relative to his experience, accomplishments, training, type of work desired, knowledge of the company and why he wishes to become associated with it, and any special questions he wants to ask. Further, he should be prepared to answer questions about his completed application blank and such questions as those given previously that the interviewer might ask.

Interview procedure

Employment interview procedures vary with different concerns. In a few companies the hiring of employees is done by the personnel or employment department but in most cases both act in a staff capacity and the actual hiring is done by the line organization.

Hiring follows these general steps. First, the applicant is screened by a staff interviewer; second, if the applicant has the basic qualifications, he is interviewed by the line organization; third, if the line organization is satisfied with the applicant, and the applicant is satisfied with the job, he is hired; fourth, the applicant returns to the employment or personnel department, which arranges for his medical examination and completion of his records, induction, and training.

Some concerns have technical, supervisory, and executive applicants interviewed by a committee of four to six men. It is seldom that the applicant is hired on the first visit. The committee has a conference the same day that the applicant has been interviewed, and if its report is favorable, the applicant is invited for further interviews. On the second visit, he is given more detailed information about the job and its potentialities; he is given further background of the company and its policies; he is taken on a tour of the plant; and he may be interviewed by several of the executives. If the report continues to be favorable and if he is satisfied with the position and the financial arrangements, he is invited to become associated with the company.

The Interview

The interviewee should be greeted promptly when he reports for his interview and be made to feel at home and at ease. He should sense immediately that the employer appreciates the opportunity to discuss the job with him. The conversation may be opened by some spontaneous comment made by either at the outset or by speaking about some point of mutual interest which the employer observed on the application blank.

The responsibility for directing the interview is largely that of the interviewer. After a bridge of friendliness has been established he may tell about the position of the company in the industry, its future, its personnel policy, its wage policy, and its policy of promotion. Then the interviewee may be informed about the job or the general training program for which applicants are being considered. Next, the interviewer can lead up to the questions that he has prepared.

The interviewer should show as much interest in the applicant's welfare as he does in the company's welfare. He should be friendly, courteous, helpful, sincere, direct, and answer any reasonable question. He should guard against snap judgments, bias, and prejudice. As the interview develops both should feel a growing sense of mutual confidence.

If the applicant has the necessary qualifications, he should be shown the job and be encouraged to ask questions about it. He should also visit some of the individuals with whom he would be associated. If the job has any hazards, or requires special working hours or special responsibilities, they should be explained carefully to the applicant. He is entitled to know about these beforehand; from the company's point of view it is unprofitable to train a man and then have him leave in six months or a year.

At the close, the interview should be summarized. If the job is not suited to the applicant, and the decision has been made that he will not be hired, he should be told the decision and the reason for it before he leaves. If the decision must await the meeting of the selection committee, tell him when he will be notified. Before closing the interview, inquire if he has any further questions and try to answer them. Thank him for coming, make any other appropriate remarks, and bid him a friendly good-bye.

Now let us look at the interview from the applicant's point of view. When you report for an interview, be there on time. Let your first impression be one of friendliness, courtesy, naturalness, alertness, interest, and cooperativeness. Maintain these all during the interview. As the

interview progresses your other favorable traits will manifest themselves. Answer questions honestly and do not hesitate to discuss your ideas. The employer is impressed by your character, your straightforwardness, your health, your capacity for work, your willingness to assume responsibility; by whether or not your personality would fit into his organization, whether you would be a steady employee, and whether you are accomplishment-minded. Employers are negatively impressed by the interviewee who has a know-it-all attitude, who is interested only in what he will be paid and what his privileges will be, who wants to know how long he would be on the first job, how long on the second job, and what his increases will be each time.

It is refreshing to an employer to interview an applicant who wants to become associated with a good company, who is not averse to work, and who will accept any reasonable position to start. All he asks is an opportunity to show that he merits further consideration. One employer who hires a number of college men says figuratively, "I want the men whom I hire for future top positions to be willing to start by pitching manure."

As the interview develops, feel free to ask any questions that have arisen in your mind. If the job does not interest you, frankly state your decision. Do not wait for the interviewer to make an offer that you may have the satisfaction of turning it down. If you are in doubt, ask for a day or several days to think it over. The interviewer may not always be in a position to grant the extension, even though he would like to do so, because other applicants may be involved who have been promised a decision by a certain date. If no decision is arrived at before leaving and you are sincerely interested in becoming identified with the company, make this known to the interviewer. It may influence the final decision. Before leaving, thank the interviewer for courtesies extended, make any other appropriate remarks, and bid him a friendly good-bye.

PERIODIC EMPLOYMENT REVIEW INTERVIEW

The periodic employment review is an informal, confidential, over-the-desk type of interview in which the employee's past six to twelve months of service are reviewed with him.

This interview may be conducted by the employee's immediate supervisor, his supervisor's superior, a committee, or a member of the personnel department.

The objective is to maintain and improve morale and to suggest to an employee how he may develop himself for higher responsibilities. The

periodic interview also serves as a safety valve since it provides an opportunity for every employee to talk privately with a superior about any question or problem that is bothering him.

There are three types of periodic employment review interviews. These range from a very simple review to one of considerable depth and complexity. Preparation varies with the complexity. The three types are: the question or problem interview; the attitude review; the review of management personnel performance and development interview.

The first type is very brief. It usually consists of nothing more than calling an employee into a supervisor's office and asking him whether he has any questions or problems about his job. If he presents a question, the supervisor attempts to answer it. If he cannot do so, he gets the answer or sends the employee to the proper person. If the employee presents a problem, the interview then becomes a personnel problem interview and is handled in the usual four-step sequence of getting the facts, weighing them and making a decision, taking action, and checking results.

The second type, the attitude review, has two purposes and is a planned interview. It seeks information on a number of subjects. It is used by the employer who desires to be abreast of the attitudes and feeling of his employees. If the employer has been negligent, he wants to know about it so that he can take immediate corrective action. Second, he wants to convey his sincerity. Interview cards with questions such as the following or containing key words only are prepared in advance and are filled in after the interview:

The employer would like to know:

Is the man interested in his job and happy in his work?

Is he satisfied with his working conditions—wages, hours, safety equipment, distribution of work, washroom facilities, cafeteria, etc.?

What is his attitude toward his supervisors?

What is his attitude toward the policies of the company?

Has he any complaints to register?

Has he any suggestions for making the company a better place at which to work?

Has he any suggestions for improvement of materials, equipment, processes, etc.? Why doesn't he present them as suggestions?

The employer would like the employee to know:

That he appreciates the quantity, quality of work done, and the cooperation, attendance, and attitude shown by the employee since the last interview

That the work he is doing is important to the company and that he is part of the company

That the company is doing its best to promote business at all times so that he may have job security, fair wages, and steady earnings

That the company appreciates his suggestions for improvement
That the company wants him to feel free to talk over any problems that he has at any time
That the company is interested in his welfare and advancement

Before sitting down with the employee the interviewer must review the last interview report, assemble data on the employee's quantity and quality records and on other job points. He should refamiliarize himself with the employee's company service, family status, social life, hobbies, community interests, hopes, and aspirations. These may be used to open the interview on a friendly basis. He must also be alert to the over-all thinking of the men in his department. Are they concerned about the security of their jobs, do they fear a reduction in hours, are they disturbed by recent changes in supervision, are the present raw materials inferior so that more time is needed to produce a quality product? Questions such as these or others may be in their minds and the interviewer must be ready to handle them.

In the case of production employees rated under a merit rating plan, some concerns discuss only the quantity and quality production in the interview; others discuss the employee's reliability, cooperation, carefulness, knowledge, emotional control, initiative, leadership, and ways of preparing him for advancement.

In those concerns where a periodic review is made of management personnel or of trainees on an executive development training program, subjects like the following are reviewed: character, knowledge of the work, health, ability to formulate and interpret policies, administrative ability in planning, coordinating, directing, controlling, and appraising, selection and training of personnel, ability to speak, and ability to conduct meetings and conferences to produce tangible results.

A trainee for an executive position participates in a variety of experiences and the interviewer is expected to be able to counsel him on any one of them. These experiences include job rotation, "assistant to" positions, special current problems, in-plant courses, out-plant courses, observation at executive meetings, field visits, trips to subsidiaries, trips to other companies, trade conferences, participation in community activities, and reading programs.

In all three types of interview presented, the attitude of the interviewer warrants careful attention. In the "attitude review" he must be patient, courteous, and a good listener. If the employee needs correction, blame should not be expressed, if it can be avoided. When correction needs to be made, first find something about which the employee can be complimented. Then talk about points which need improvement. Present the facts and if fault needs to be found, let the facts do it. Offer your services in helping the employee to improve. After

showing the employee the point that needs attention, you can say "Do you think we could improve this point, Jim?" When he agrees, ask him for suggestions. If he doesn't advance any, ask him a few questions that will lead him into making suggestions that you hold in mind. If he still doesn't advance any ideas, you may have to say, "Do you think it could be done this way?" When he agrees, help him to carry out the suggestion. The purpose of correction is not to find fault but rather to prevent the error from happening again. End the interview with another word of praise.

The interview based on the weighted merit rating formula may be the most difficult to handle. Individuals compare their ratings, and each in his own mind considers himself superior to at least one other individual who received a slightly higher rating on a single factor. Consequently, he may consider the entire rating incorrect or prejudiced. His reaction is emotional and may be inaccurate, but it is very real and accurate to him. Therefore, sometimes instead of being an aid to building morale, the merit rating interview lowers it. Some interviewers never tell the weighted scores but confine the interview to the strong points and to those which need improvement. Thus, comparison on points is eliminated. The attitudes of fairness, interest, and helpfulness are most important when making judgments of the scores arrived at by the merit rating procedure.

The periodic review of management personnel requires considerable experience and training because appraisal is made on intangible qualities. Encouragement and stimulation to higher standards are probably the major tools needed by the interviewer.

THE PERSONNEL PROBLEM INTERVIEW

The personnel problem interview is an interview in which a solution to the problem of an employee must be found. As such, it deals with the morale of the employee, and therefore its aim must be to maintain, restore, or improve morale.

Morale in its positive meaning is a state of satisfaction or emotional equilibrium which is the result of the individual's satisfaction with the company's policies, working conditions, wages, and his security. Satisfaction encourages the employee to give his best effort and to cooperate with his fellow employees and supervisors.

Disturbances to morale are the result of both in-plant and out-plant conditions. In-plant, the employee may be disturbed by a change in work, rotating shifts, unequal distribution of work, Sunday work, promotion of others with less seniority, poor equipment, inadequate locker room facilities, or disagreement with fellow employees. Out-plant, the

employee may be disturbed by illness, financial difficulties, marital problems, poor personal habits, or legal difficulties.

The disturbances to morale may be greater from outside sources than from in-plant sources. Within a concern the supervisory force makes it its business to watch morale and to take immediate action at the first sign of difficulty rather than let it progress to a crisis. Consequently, morale in-plant is kept in a fairly healthy condition. Outside the company, in the home and the community, there is no ready person interested in maintaining morale, and once a cause begins to develop, it may continue to the point of crisis and probably end in a breaking of relationships.

The interviewer is interested in the morale of the employee regardless of its cause. Low morale immediately or eventually affects production. The low morale of one employee may spread to another and another and thus affect the whole department. If the disturbed state of morale is the result of an out-plant condition usually the individual alone is affected but if his work is such that he must cooperate with others, he may affect them. It is a well-established fact that the behavior of one person tends to elicit a similar response, or one of irritation or opposition on the part of others. Cooperation tends to elicit cooperation; respect, respect; fair play, fair play; anger, anger; domination, attack. If the disturbed state of morale is the result of an in-plant condition, it may spread from one employee to another and gain in intensity as it is discussed by a group.

Purpose of the Interview

The purpose of the interview is to attempt to understand *why* the employee feels and acts the way he does, and to take or help him to take corrective action as soon as possible.

The interview should demonstrate clearly to the employee that the interviewer and the company are interested in him and his welfare as well as that of the company, i.e., interested in his health, his adjustment to his job, his working conditions, his relations with fellow workers and supervisors, and the welfare of his home, family, and community.

Preparation

Preparation for the personnel problem interview is not always possible. Problems must be solved as they occur. Facts need to be gathered, decisions must be made, and action must often be taken on the spot.

Some personnel problems are very involved and require full investi-

gation of all records and numerous interviews. An accident case, for example, might require all employment, medical, safety, insurance, and earning records; further, it might require interviews with the safety engineer, the plant doctor, the employment manager, representatives of the insurance company, fellow employees, supervisors, and perhaps executives.

Interview steps

Normally, the personnel problem interview follows the sequence of steps given in the introduction of this chapter. However, this sequence is not always adhered to by the employee who has a problem. His emotion may be so aroused or so out of control that the interviewer has not the opportunity to establish a friendly relation before beginning the discussion. The employee may come dashing into the supervisor's office almost at white heat and before the interviewer has a chance to recognize him, he is telling his story energetically.

When this occurs, the supervisor listens attentively. He holds in mind his four steps of handling a personnel problem: get the facts, weigh and decide, take action, and check results. His first step is *get the facts* and he must be sure that he has all of them. Nothing else is necessary at this point. He does not interrupt the employee but he lets him dissipate all of his emotion. Listening is often the best strategy. Even after the employee has stopped, the interviewer may still say nothing but wait to see if he will unburden himself further. Some practical interviewers instead of starting to solve the problem, turn the attention of the individual to himself. They may say, "Jim, I'm surprised. You have always been a man of such good control and even temper. How did you ever let yourself get so upset?" This approach makes the individual forget about his outside problem for a minute, and he tries to justify himself or he admits that he shouldn't have permitted himself to become so upset or angry. After philosophizing a bit further, the supervisor can resume the discussion by saying, "Now, Jim, tell me that story again. I was so upset about you personally that I'm not sure that I have all of the facts." Then he listens interestedly again, looks further for motives, and asks any necessary questions. After he has the whole story, he may say, "Let's see if I have your story correctly," and then he repeats it and checks with Jim. Thus far he has the facts. The first time he got emotion but he knew that those thoughts and feelings were facts to Jim. To the individual, what he believes is fact, whether it is true or not. When the interviewer has all the facts he leads Jim into deciding how the situation might be solved—whether he, the interviewer, needs to do something or whether Jim needs to do something.

He might introduce the second step by saying, "What do you think we ought to do in this case, Jim?" After a decision is worked out, action is taken immediately. If it cannot be taken immediately, it is taken as early as possible after the interview. The interview is closed in the standard manner and the supervisor asks the employee to come in any time that he can be of help to him.

THE EXIT INTERVIEW

During World War II the labor turnover in many war plants exceeded the ability of the company to hire. As the demand for war production increased, production schedules could not be met and the training costs were excessively high for new employees who stayed only a few weeks. Efforts had to be made to reduce turnover. One of the stopgaps introduced was the exit interview.

The purpose of the exit interview, or preclearance interview as it was also called, was to find out from each employee quitting the real reason for his wanting to sever connections with the company. It was believed that many reasons for quitting given to supervisors were not real reasons. It was further believed that the employee would give his real reasons to an exit interviewer because what he would say at the time of quitting would in no way affect his status.

Companies were confident that once the true reasons were known they would be able to attack and solve the problem intelligently. Exit interviewers found that individuals were willing to discuss their reasons for leaving. Employees quit because they did not know what they were supposed to do, or they had been trained improperly, objected to rotating shifts, couldn't make bus connections, didn't like the supervisor, the work was too hard and too dirty, they couldn't stand on their feet for a full shift, weren't making enough money, wanted to work in a plant more directly connected with the war effort, the work was too hazardous, and numerous other reasons.

Exit interviewers were able to accomplish two things. First, they persuaded a certain percentage to return to their jobs or to accept other jobs; and second, they learned of a number of corrections which needed to be made in the plants relative to policy, practice, procedure, working conditions, safety, and training.

The exit interviews were conducted by staff men of the employment and personnel departments who were trained in finding the real problems bothering employees. They also knew how to cooperate with line supervision and were often able to help them adjust the thinking of employees to jobs that needed to be done to promote the war effort.

The results of the exit interviews were considered so valuable that many companies have continued them as standard procedure. Even though it is not quite so essential to retain employees today, the data gathered by the exit interviewer may be a warning or an indicator of difficulties in the organization that need attention if they are to be kept from becoming more serious.

When opening the exit interview, the interviewer makes no attempt to put any obstacle in the way of the individual who wishes to quit. He opens the interview with a friendly greeting, tells the individual that he is sorry that he has decided to leave, and asks if he would be kind enough to tell him if there was anything unsatisfactory about his employment or the policies of the company. The interviewer follows the same procedure as in the personnel problem interview, i.e., he lets the employee tell his whole story without interruption. If after hearing the facts he feels that something can be done, he tells the employee that he thinks he could correct the condition, and if he could, would the employee be agreeable to reconsidering his decision to quit. Sometimes, just the imparting of information or the giving of a simple explanation of a policy or procedure will satisfy the employee and he is willing to return to his job.

The exit interviewer is often called in by the foreman when the latter has an employee who is considering leaving but has not yet arrived at a final decision. Sometimes, the exit interviewer can retain a good employee by taking care of a situation for him that is not directly connected with the job, or he may learn of a point that was not communicated to the foreman, or he may influence the individual to accept a transfer.

The qualifications of an exit interviewer demand that he be a public relations man. Even though things may have gone wrong in a plant or office, a good exit interview can reduce the hurt considerably, and the employee will carry away a much better impression of the company. The exit interviewer should be a man who is easy to approach and talk with, who inspires confidence, who is sincere, courteous, and quiet in manner, who appreciates the good in people, who understands their failings, and who enjoys helping persons to overcome their difficulties.

The exit interview is here to stay and progressive companies have incorporated it as part of their procedure.

SUGGESTED ASSIGNMENTS

General Suggestion

Alternate with a member of your class to carry out the following interviews—one acting as the interviewer, the other as the interviewee.

1. Assume that you are an employment manager and that the financial department has asked you to screen a number of college graduates and to select five for interview by a committee. You have been told that the candidates should have had training in administration as well as accounting procedure so that they would be eligible after several years' training and experience to qualify for supervisory positions. Plan your interview data and have a number of your colleagues act as candidates.

2. Assume that you are a works manager seeking two college graduates who have technical background in mechanical or chemical engineering; who have fine appearance and the ability to get along well with both men on the production line and members of middle management. These men will be trained for two years. They will begin with physical work on the machines and later will be moved to work concerned with the technical aspects of the products, and the processes of their manufacture. The employment manager has sent you two candidates who, he believes, have the qualifications. Interview them.

3. Assume that you are applying for a job without having arranged an appointment. Talk with the employment manager. Present your qualifications, tell him the type of work you would like to do, give him your ideas about your future plans, and ask him questions about the company's policy of training, promotion, and any other things which you would like to know about the company.

4. Assume that you are a department head conducting the annual attitude review of the employees of your department. In the course of one of the interviews an employee accuses you of favoritism. His case is that he has worked in the department ten years, knows every job, has always given his best to the company, has never refused any extra assignments, and that when a new assistant was appointed recently you selected a man who had three years' experience with the company, who could not perform all the jobs of the department and who was not as skilled in those he could do. Further, that you appointed the other man because he was high man on your bowling team and he belonged to the same church and same lodge as you did. You selected the newer man, however, because you believed him to have better ability in handling people, because he had organized his work better, and because he had been enrolled in evening courses for the past two years fitting himself for supervisory and administrative work. Handle the problem.

5. Assume that you are conducting a periodic interview with an employee who is being trained for a management position. You are satisfied with his progress but find that in his desire to get things done he orders his men to do things without telling them why and without inviting their suggestions. By this method he is not training his men to think problems through to a satisfactory conclusion by themselves. His men con-

sider him somewhat of a dictator. Discuss his problem frankly and help him to look at it objectively; also help him to work out a new approach.

6. Assume that you are a personnel manager and that an employee who has worked for the company for one month presents this case to you. He has received a telegram that his wife, who is with her mother in a city four hundred miles away, has been rushed to the hospital for an emergency operation. He wants to go to her immediately, but has no money for transportation because his wife needed all he had for her trip; also, he has no reserve on which he can draw. He needs about fifty dollars for transportation and will undoubtedly need another hundred dollars for immediate hospital expenses. This man has been unsatisfactory in his work. His supervisor says that he is a chronic complainer and that he is thinking of releasing him. As personnel manager you can refuse him, arrange to have a certain amount taken out of each weekly pay in the future, you can direct him to the credit union, or you can suggest that he go to a bank or loan company for the money. Handle the case in the way you think best.

7. Assume that you are the foreman of the stores department. You have been called by the plant guard department and informed that one of your men dropped his lunch box as he was going past the guard at the gate at the end of his shift and a new firebrick rolled out of it. The guard questioned the man but did not get a satisfactory answer. The man had no permit to take company property off the plant grounds. The guard knew the man and filed his report with his sergeant. A check of your inventory shows that your stock is short one hundred and fifty firebricks. You learn indirectly that the employee is building a new house by himself and that he was probably taking the bricks for his fireplace. The man has had fifteen years' service and has had a good work record. It is an unwritten but understood policy in your plant that any employee who steals company property will be dismissed for cause. Interview the man when he reports for work the following morning. Be sure you get all the facts before you take action. Give the man an opportunity to tell his story.

8. Assume that you are the educational director for your company and that an employee with two years' trade school training and of average ability asks your advice about contracting for a correspondence course in executive training. You know the course to be worth while. The employee is enthusiastic as he tells you about the course and indicates that he is looking forward to taking it in spite of the fact that it will take three to four years to complete and cost two hundred and fifty dollars. Help the individual analyze his background, his personality, and his experience in relation to this course. Lead him to discover for himself that he is not ready for this type of training. Encourage him to

study, however, and guide him so that he will consider other correspondence courses or evening courses suited to his present ability.

9. Assume that you have hired an engineer, John Davis, who was an alcoholic and who had been treated at a hospital on several occasions. At the time of his hiring he told you his background very frankly but said that he had not taken intoxicating liquors for almost a year. He thought he could continue to control himself. After one year you find that he had no difficulty and you assume that he is cured. A problem arises in a customer's plant in a neighboring state and you decide to send John. You secure his Pullman accommodations, arrange an expense account to take care of him for a week, and he boards his train at 6 P.M. The following morning at 10 o'clock you receive a telephone call from the customer asking why your engineer hasn't reported. You tell him that you sent a man but that he must have encountered transportation difficulties. However, John does not report at the customer's plant all day and you are forced to send another engineer. No trace can be found of John. A week later John walks into your office. He is chagrined and tells you that he met an old friend on the train who persuaded him to take just one drink. In order to be sociable and thinking he could stop after one drink, he acceded. Unfortunately, he couldn't. After he got off the train he needed more. He didn't remember everything that happened after that, but three days later he awakened and found himself in a hospital. He tells you that he expects you to release him but that he would like to be retained, that he needs the job, has been happier working for you than he has ever been, appreciates the fact that you did give him a job, and that he likes the job. Talk further with him before determining what action should be taken.

10. Assume that you are an exit interviewer interviewing a man with four years of service in the company. He has been an above average worker and has been well liked by his fellow workers. The supervisor considered him as future supervisory material. The man did not tell his supervisor why he decided to leave the company. In fact, he indicated that he didn't want to discuss his reasons. In the interview after talking about things in general you learn that the man has had unusually high doctor's bills and that he is in arrears. You are aware that he does not want charity and that he wants to work out his own problems. You further learn that he expects to work for a nearby concern which is extremely busy and where he can work sixty hours per week at slightly less pay on an average hourly basis but that his total take-home pay will be greater. Handle this case.

CHAPTER 32

The Planned Conference

In most progressive companies the planned conference is a standard method of discussing problems and arriving at final decisions, developing plans of action, and training personnel.

Not all executives believe that the conference method is economically worth while. In fact, they maintain that it is a costly method of solving problems. They argue that one person can think through a problem to its solution and put it into effect in a much shorter time than can a group.

Their experience may prove their argument. However, they may not have distinguished between problems that should be handled in conference and those that should be handled by one person. A subject should go to conference only when the outcome will affect other departments or company policy, and the experience of the group can be helpful in deciding upon a policy and in predicting its chances of success or failure.

It is true that a conference can degenerate into a social hour, a mutual-agreeing society, or a period dedicated to the pooling of ignorance, but such degeneration is the result of poor planning and poor conference conduct both by the leader and the participants, rather than of any inherent deficiency of the conference method.

This chapter will deal with the planned conference—planned by the conference leader and prepared for by the conferees. In Chapter 29 the informal conference was discussed, in which preparation was primarily the responsibility of one individual.

THE CONFERENCE METHOD

The conference method is a means to a definite end providing for orderly attack and cross discussion of a problem, plan, or opportunity by a limited number of selected conferees under the guidance of a leader. The conferees interchange ideas with the hope that they will

stimulate new ideas that will lead to further enlightenment and solution.

In contrast to debate, the conference method differs in that in the former the speaker attempts to argue the rightness of his arrived-at or fixed solution, while in the latter a solution has not yet been reached. Conferees plan to reach the best solution by thinking together, investigating the problem from all angles, and measuring, testing, and proving each idea and conclusion as it is presented.

The conference method is founded on certain basic assumptions. It assumes that each participant has no intention of forcing his point of view, pet idea, solution, or plan upon other conferees, but that each is willing to take a fresh view of the problem as he hears it discussed from different points of view. As such, it does not begin with an affirmative and negative side, but with as many sides as there are participants. It further assumes that the aim of each conferee is to master the problem under discussion and not to vanquish fellow conferees.

Conferences may be considered under two broad classifications: the how-to-do conference, and the how-to-understand conference. The difference between the two is one of objective rather than method.

The how-to-do conference aims at a course of specific action. It seeks the one best way of realizing the desired objective. It is employed in planning conferences of all kinds—production, distribution, finance, and legal.

The how-to-understand conference aims to discover principles, processes, motives, or causes and effects. By examination, interpretation, and evaluation of experience, the conferees try to arrive at a clearer understanding of the situation under discussion.

How-to-understand conferences are seldom called in business, but they are part of almost every how-to-do conference because knowledge and understanding of economic, labor, social, and technological problems and trends are the basis of formation of plans of actions. They also are a part of many over-the-desk conversations.

More specifically, conferences may be thought of as training conferences, operational conferences, and policy conferences. The purpose of the training conference is to have the group pool its best information and that of best practice, to show how the information pertains to the work of the group, and to discuss how it may be applied. The purpose of the operational conference is to have the group pool its ideas and collective thought in order to arrive at decisions, to develop new solutions, or to devise new plans of action. The purpose of the policy conference is to understand better the policy, to explore the problems confronted in its administration, to determine its limitations, and to

recommend changes. The discussion may pertain to an established policy or to the formation of a new policy.

PLANNING THE CONFERENCE

Thorough planning by the leader is the basis of good conference results. His planning must include the physical arrangements, selection of the conference group, organization of conference material, preparation of the visual aids, and preparation by conferees.

Physical Arrangements

Physical arrangements imply a conference room that is well lighted, well ventilated, and free from outside noises. Many individuals cannot concentrate under the pressure of distracting noises.

The room should be equipped with a good-sized table or numerous small tables that may be arranged into different patterns, a good-sized blackboard, chalk, erasers, ash trays, writing materials, and electric facilities for movies, slides, or sound-slide films.

In general, the round table arrangement or the U arrangement with the leader at the open end directly in front of the blackboard is the most satisfactory.

The Conference Group

The second phase of planning is selecting the conference group. It should consist of persons who are vitally interested in the subject to be discussed and who preferably are on about the same organization level.

The ideal number of conferees is between ten and fifteen but groups of up to twenty and as low as eight can work effectively. In the informal conferences of four to seven persons the chairman is usually the most active participant. The type of conference considered in this chapter is that in which an impartial chairman leads the discussion.

In the single conference, participation is generally better when the participants are well selected. Same job level, or same type of work, and equal length of service are factors that make for a harmonious group. Experience shows that newly appointed foremen hesitate to express themselves when grouped with old-timers; so do factory personnel when grouped with office personnel; so do noncollege conferees when grouped with college conferees; and so do subordinates when grouped with superiors.

In a series of conferences, the selection of individuals from the same job level, same type of work, equal length of service, and same education is not quite so important. In a series, a heterogeneous group seems to find a common denominator after two or three meetings and the variations in qualifications may actually be an asset. In general, how-

ever, it is better to take care in planning that the variations are not too great.

The group should be made up of members who bring different points of view. For example, a group of foremen or department heads representing departments from the beginning of the processing of raw materials to the shipping of the product will be able to answer almost any question, and will arrive at fairly good decisions because the decisions can be viewed from almost every department of the plant.

Organization of Conference Material

The third phase of planning is the organization of conference material. The smoothness of the conference and the arrival at tangible outcomes are dependent upon the preparatory work of the leader. Organization includes selecting a vital topic, determining the objective and the purposes, limiting the scope of the subject, and preparing the discussion outline.

The conference topic should come within the experience of the group and be one the group can do something about individually or collectively. While worthwhile topics can be organized for conference, it is better that current problems requiring decision or action or both be discussed. Such discussions might deal with a false rumor that the plant was planning a mass layoff, an over-all reduction in wages, or that certain work done in one section was going to be done by another section. Or the discussions might deal with a sudden increase in spoiled work, or a sudden decrease in production per man hour, an increase in accidents, an anticipated period of difficulty in getting raw materials or packing materials, and the introduction of a superior product or a cut in price by a competitor.

The objective of the conference is the specific outcome that the leader would like to accomplish as a result of the conference. It corresponds to the objective or specific purpose of the speech. In a conference on instruction the objective might be stated as, "Know how to use the four-step method of instructing workers."

The statement of purpose is a simple statement or itemization of what the leader expects to discuss with the group. For example, in a supervisory conference on the technique of instructing workers, the purposes might be stated as:

To discuss the steps which must be followed in teaching a learner—preparation, presentation, tryouts, and follow-up

To break down the nature of the responsibilities of the instructor and learner in accomplishing each step

To discuss how the conferees can best apply them within their own departments

The scope of the subject must be limited so that it can be discussed adequately in the time allotted for the conference. A broad topic is difficult to handle, and encourages the conferees to talk in generalities and to wander from the point under discussion. The average conference is scheduled for one or two hours. In the latter, a recess is called at the end of the first hour or when the discussion permits a rest period.

The subject is preferably stated in question form. This corresponds to the theme in a speech and is governed by the same principles. Wordings of conference questions follow:

Should the company adopt the 44-hour week?
Should a supervisor be told that he has advanced as far as his abilities will permit?
What can we do to improve our good will in the community?
How can we consistently duplicate the color in our product?
Why is our accident rate increasing?

The outline of the discussion must provide for the introductory remarks, a sequence of discussion, and summary remarks.

The introductory remarks correspond to the interest, background, and theme steps of the introduction of a speech. The introductory remarks must create interest in the topic, show why the topic is of interest to the group, and give suitable background. They set the stage for the discussion and give it purpose. Introductory remarks should be brief—three to five minutes.

The discussion sequence may be planned by listing the main points or solutions of the subject matter and then putting these into question form; or by asking a series of challenging questions on the conference subject. The objectives and purposes will also give leads to interesting questions.

The pattern of the discussion plan varies with the type of conference, i.e., whether it deals with training topics, operational problems, or policies.

When the subject is one of training, the conference leader determines beforehand what topics should or may be discussed with profit and in what order he can present them. He cannot determine the exact sequence because the group may introduce a point on which he had not planned and may want to spend considerable time on it.

The sequence must always be considered only as a skeleton guide by the leader. It takes on life as the conferees cite their personal experiences, and exchange their responses of agreement and exception. Illustrations of simple question sequence on the topic of recognition:

What acts on the part of the employee should be recognized?
What forms of recognition can be given?

What are the advantages and disadvantages of giving these forms of recognition?

Should the giving of recognition be timed?

What principles should be kept in mind when giving recognition?

Training conferences are often based on actual cases. The cases can be presented in several ways. First, the leader may present a case and tell how it was handled. Then the discussion is open to the group for their views on whether or not the case was handled properly. Second, the leader may give the facts of the case, but withhold the solution. After the group arrives at a solution, the leader presents the solution that was actually used. Third, each conferee is asked to present the facts of a case but to withhold telling his action until the group has worked out a solution. This technique was the one used so successfully by Training Within Industry during the war in its job relations training program. Fourth, the case is mimeographed, together with a series of challenging questions or true-false questions, and both are sent to the conferees in advance of the meeting. When the conferees arrive for the meeting, a quick poll is taken to determine on which answers the group agrees and disagrees. The conference is opened and confined to those questions on which there is disagreement.

Training subjects may include practically any phase of business on any organizational level. Particular emphasis has been given in recent years to supervisory development through the conference method, and such topics as the following have been considered: qualities of leadership, functions of supervision, delegation of responsibility, responsibility for safety, discipline, training, personal development, cooperation, care of materials and equipment, selection of subordinates, administration, and human relations.

Operational conferences are based on the problem solving method. After the introductory remarks have been presented, the leader either presents the problem or leads the group to isolate and define it. This is followed by setting up tentative solutions or alternate plans of action, drawing from the group the pros and cons of each solution, and arriving at the best plan of action. It is usually developed with the aid of a blackboard chart as follows:

PLAN A		PLAN B	
Advantages	Disadvantages	Advantages	Disadvantages

The solution is unknown to the leader until the group has made its decision. While he may anticipate the solution, the group may bring up facts that he had not considered and the solution may be based on these facts. The leader need not have the answer. It is his job to stimulate and direct the group so that they will produce the answer. His responsibility is that of guiding the discussion.

Let us consider an actual problem. The works manager has asked that the conference attempt to find ways of reducing the monthly rejections from 10 per cent to 5 per cent. In the introductory remarks the leader would tell how the problem came to the group, perhaps state in dollars and cents what the loss is, how many deliveries are delayed, how much extra storage space is needed because orders are waiting for replacements, and how much customer good will is being jeopardized. The planning for this conference would be simple for the leader—but perhaps not so simple for the conferees. All it requires is a standard chart for blackboard use:

CAUSES	REMEDIES	ADVANTAGES	DISADVANTAGES

Policy conferences employ the methods of development of both the training and operational conferences. They may be conducted without any plan in mind, by presenting a series of questions, or by introducing a series of cases. The discussion deals with the philosophy of the policy as well as with its administration. The leader must attempt to have the group examine each phase of the policy and propose changes for consideration by management.

If a new policy is to be evolved, a preliminary statement may be drawn up by representatives of the personnel department as a starting point for discussion. If the policy is one which is common to industry, the leader should be well versed in the practice of the area, or should invite a member of the personnel department who can give the group any necessary data on the practice of other companies.

Let us suppose a company has formulated a general policy on seniority in regard to layoff but has never attempted to decide how the policy would be administered in specific situations. A policy differs from a rule in that a policy always requires the exercise of judgment while the rule does not. The policy is an expression of a company's attitude and intent. For the purpose of illustration let us assume that the following statement of policy will be the conference subject:

Company seniority is recognized as the basis of employment at the time of layoff.

The leader may draw up questions for discussion as follows:

1. What is job seniority? What is departmental seniority?
2. What is company seniority? Does company seniority mean total years of unbroken service? Does company seniority mean total years of service regardless of the fact that they are broken? Are the years of seniority previous to a layoff recognized in total seniority? Does it make any difference if the employee returned to his job immediately upon recall by the company? How long a period of absence from service in the company voids previous seniority? Is seniority acquired previous to voluntary severance recognized? If an employee is discharged for cause and is later rehired, is his seniority previous to discharge recognized? Is an extended sick leave counted as continuous seniority? Is seniority broken by an extended authorized leave of absence?

Preparation of Visual Aids

After the discussion is planned, the leader assembles his visual aids and prepares them for quick use in the conference. Aids may include charts, diagrams, maps, flow sheets, equipment, statistics, slides, slide films, movies, or demonstrations and experiments.

Preparation by Conferees

The final preparatory step is notifying the conferees what the subject will be so that they may adequately prepare themselves. Notification may include the question, objective, purpose, and the points of discussion.

The planning phase of the conference, however, is not complete unless the conferee also prepares himself adequately. His preparation can be done by answering the following questions:

1. What is the question?
2. What is the scope of the question?
3. What is the objective?
4. What is the purpose?
5. Is it worth discussing?
6. What topics will be considered?
7. What data will I need to participate intelligently?
8. How will the outcomes of this conference affect my department, the interrelations of departments?
9. Will the outcome be in line with company policy?
10. Will the outcome of this conference affect our customers, the industry, or the public?
11. What cases can I use to illustrate my points?
12. Do I need any charts, diagrams, or statistics?

13. Who are the other members of this conference group and what points of view will they advance?
14. Have I notified my secretary to remind me of this meeting?

THE CONFERENCE IN ACTION

Before considering the conference in action let us list the abilities and attitudes of the conference leader and conferee.

The Conference Leader

The abilities of a good conference leader are similar to those of a good speaker, supervisor, or executive. He must be a man who can organize his ideas; who is goal-minded; who can hold a comprehensive view of his subject while a single topic is being discussed; who is serious-minded and yet has a sense of humor; who respects the subject material no matter how many times he has heard it discussed; who has emotional control and can be diplomatic when personalities clash; who is open-minded and impartial; who can distinguish facts from opinion and rumor; who does not dominate; who is friendly, confident, informal, and businesslike in his approach; who is free of distracting mannerisms; who refrains from wise-cracking, sarcasm, or ridicule; who listens attentively to the discussion; who speaks naturally, clearly, and objectively; who dresses appropriately; who responds alertly and directs questions interestedly; who can understand the ideas the inarticulate are trying to express and can phrase them well.

In contrast to the speaker, the conference leader must be a good listener; he must have patience while ideas are being developed slowly, and be able to withhold his own ideas, opinions, and judgments. In addition, he must be able to get along with men before and after the conference as well as while directing them in discussion. He must have skill in subordinating personality and be able to direct attention to the problem to be solved.

And last, but nevertheless important, the leader must be skilled in the technique of conducting a successful conference, i.e., be able to plan the conference, direct and control the discussion toward tangible conclusions, and follow through on the recommendations of the group.

The Conferee

The qualifications of a good conferee include the ability to analyze a problem or develop a subject, and to confine his thinking to the point under discussion, while at the same time holding the entire problem in mind. Four attitudes are suggested as being important to good par-

ticipation: intellectual sportsmanship, intellectual cooperation, willingness to learn, and willingness to participate.

Intellectual sportsmanship

The sportsman tries to win, but he does not break rules. When a fellow conferee makes a good point and is able to substantiate it in the face of opposing ideas, he should be congratulated as he would be for a similar accomplishment in sports. Many conferees show resentment when their ideas are proved to be of little value. Emotional hang-overs are juvenile reactions. Each conferee ought to be thankful for a better idea or a new idea.

Intellectual cooperation

Each conferee should be interested in every idea presented and do his utmost to develop and test it. In other words, he should enjoy helping the other fellow improve the ideas presented. He should discuss impersonally and never permit hate or revenge to develop toward any other member. He looks for causes, not for an opportunity to find fault.

Willingness to learn

The learner's attitude is essential. Each conferee should go into the conference with the thought of learning as well as of contributing ideas. He should be alert to new ideas, new viewpoints, new approaches, and should welcome a point of view contrary to his own because it will stimulate him to think further and to retest his ideas and opinions. He should hold to his own opinions until he can be given good reason for changing them or for making adjustments in them.

Willingness to participate

It is not enough that a conferee be a good listener. He should realize that it is his responsibility to contribute ideas, offer searching questions, and attempt to test points as well as be a good listener. He should make every effort to restrict his remarks to the point under discussion and to advance to the next point only when the leader advances it. During the discussion he should give full attention to the conferee speaking and look directly at him. When he speaks, he shares eye contact with his fellow conferees.

Conducting the Conference

Opening remarks

In the opening remarks, the leader states the problem, the purpose of the meeting, the objective to be attained, the scope of the subject, any definitions of terms, and the background. Then he suggests a plan of development.

The discussion

After the opening remarks, the discussion is turned over to the conferees. This is usually done by asking a planned question. The opening

question and the transitional questions or statements can be planned before the meeting, but the questions that will aid in developing each point cannot be formulated until ideas are advanced by the group.

The question is the leader's main tool for guiding the discussion. The conference question assumes that the conferees have not arrived at fixed conclusions and that the conclusion is to be built out of the contributions of the group.

Conference questions are of two types: the overhead and the direct. The overhead question is one which is directed to the entire group in such way that any member may attempt to answer it. The direct question requests information, an opinion, or the opinion of a particular conferee.

Some conference leaders believe that the direct question should never be used. Experience shows that it does have its place in conference, especially in drawing out reticent individuals who wish to contribute but who find it difficult to take the initiative of their own accord. When used, it is usually phrased as an invitation to participate and not as a demand. For example, "Bill, you have had considerable experience with this type of situation; would you like to say a word about it?" or "Bill, in our conversation the other day you told me about a similar case that you handled successfully. Would you be kind enough to share it with this group?"

It is good technique for the leader to use the direct question with reticent members at the first or second session, when just getting them to say yes or no starts them participating. For example, "John, I gather from your expression that you agree with the opinion stated. Is that right?" Such a simple acknowledgment builds confidence in the very reticent individual because he has spoken and it was successful. Soon, he will feel free to contribute more. Another use of the direct question will be illustrated later in the handling of problem conferees.

The overhead question, however, is the main type of conference question. It is better to phrase it so that in most instances it cannot be answered by yes or no. The question should call upon the factual background of the conferees, their ability to reason, their ability to make judgments, their ability to see new relationships, and their ability to think creatively. Sample wordings used in conferences follow:

"What would happen if . . ."
"What do you suppose the employee . . ."
"Why did you do it that way?"
"Does it make any difference, if . . ."
"How ought we to look at this?"

"Could this idea be used in any other situation?"
"How would you propose to tell . . ."
"Who should be told about this and what should they be told?"
"How can a supervisor . . ."
"What is the relation of . . ."
"How could this be done better?"
"Would it be better to . . ."
"Would there be any repercussion, if . . ."
"Has anyone had a similar experience which . . ."
"Who has used a different method and how did it differ?"
"When should this idea be used?"

When the discussion is in progress, it may not be necessary to use more than a simple follow-up question like "Why?" or "How?"

The leader does not participate in the discussion and must take care not to agree or disagree with points as they are made. Comments like, "I agree," or "I feel the same way," or "That's right," or their opposites should not be made by the leader. It is his job to stimulate the group, to combine their ideas, to get each to test or prove the thoughts advanced, and to lead them to their best conclusion. The leader may, however, contribute information not known to the group.

After the group has discussed a point and there seems to be no further value in continuing its discussion, even though the group is not in agreement, the leader should summarize the points, state the group's agreement and disagreement, and move on to the next point. As each point is summarized, the previous points arrived at should be restated. This shows how the discussion is developing. If a blackboard chart is not being used, the conclusions may be written on the board as they are completed.

In the course of discussion of controversial issues, the group will usually divide into two or more points of view. This difference should be encouraged by the leader because opposition is an aid to testing the idea.

One of the major skills of the leader must be his ability to lead a group of varying personalities cooperatively to tangible conclusions. In almost every group there will be one who wants to dominate, or who can't listen for long, or who can't stay on the point under discussion, or who talks on endlessly, or who always takes the opposite view, or who attacks every view almost maliciously in order to show his superiority.

Each of the foregoing types must be controlled and handled tactfully. They are all important to the final decision. The dominating person does not need encouragement to participate but he may have to be

controlled. Two approaches can be used. If he expounds too long on a subject, the leader must break in at an opportune time and say, "Thanks, John. You brought up a point that I'm sure several of the others will want to discuss." Then direct it to someone else. Use the direct question if necessary. A similar approach is used with the man who cannot stay on one subject. The moment he goes off on a tangent, the leader must break in and say, "Before you advance your next point, Harry, let's give a little more attention to the interesting point you just raised." For the conferee who cannot listen long, compliment him for wanting to participate again but tell him the others should be encouraged to participate first. In handling the conferee who talks on endlessly, the leader must be alert to direct the discussion to another the first time he makes a point worthy of group discussion. Or, the leader may break in and ask him a direct question which can be answered by "yes" or "no" and then direct the same question to another.

The individual who always takes the opposite view can be complimented for it by telling him that he always helps to test the idea. However, once he realizes that the leader or the group is aware of his technique, or he himself becomes aware of the technique he has been using, he will change or vary his attack. The group can do a lot to change him.

The individual who insists on being the center of attention by ridiculing the ideas of others must usually be given some rough treatment by the group. The leader can assist by letting him be the first to express himself on a controversial subject and on some occasion when he gives a weak answer, the leader can "turn the heat" of the group upon him by giving every conferee an opportunity of deflating it. After a few such treatments the individual is usually more reluctant to ridicule the sincere contributions of others.

There are three other ways of handling problem conferees. First, the leader can have the group agree on a set of rules of participation; second, the leader can bring in an occasional item on good conference procedure that indirectly suggests standards of participation for the group; and third, the leader can talk with the conferees outside the conference and directly or indirectly make suggestions to them.

A last problem that the leader must deal with occasionally is that of having the group arrive at a wrong solution because they have not enough facts or because they are not familiar with company policy or procedure. When the latter is true, the leader may supply the lack. Using the information to arrive at a decision is up to the group. Another technique that the leader may employ is to call the attention of the

group to the fact that other groups in considering the same problem or a similar one arrived at a different decision. This reopens the discussion and the leader can turn them to discussing the validity of the decision of other groups. If the group has been in error, they will see it and reverse their previous views.

Closing the conference

A feeling of accomplishment by the conferees is essential at the end of every conference. A summary is essential. It must include a review of the high points to show the area discussed, the points agreed upon, and those on which there was disagreement, the conclusions reached, if any, and how close the group came to accomplishing its objective. A word of commendation by the leader on the participation of the group is always in order. It may be nothing more than, "Thanks, fellows. You did a good piece of work."

Postconference

Most conferences require no action after the discussion. The knowledge gained in the training discussion is put into practice by the conferees; the decisions arrived at in operational conferences are usually carried out by the conferees too, but occasionally a notice must be sent to those departments that will be affected by the decision; the conclusions or recommendations resulting from the policy discussion may be carried out by the conferees as the need arises or the conclusions may be referred to a representative or committee of management.

Conference notes should always be made by the leader both as a matter of record and to serve as basic material for later conferences.

Conclusion

The planned conference is a standard method of discussing and arriving at final decisions, developing plans of action, and training personnel. Its effectiveness is entirely dependent upon intelligent planning by the leader and intelligent preparation and participation by the conferees.

SUGGESTED ASSIGNMENTS

General Suggestion

Form groups of five to twelve to carry out the following conferences, one member acting as leader, the others as participants. The leader should call the group together for a brief meeting to decide upon the topic so that every member will be fully prepared to discuss it.

1. Plan a training conference on the subject *Promotions to Supervisory Positions*. Develop blackboard charts for your discussion titled

Responsibilities of a Supervisor
Qualifications of a Supervisor

Fill in the chart as points are presented and discussed by the group.

2. Plan a training conference on the subject of *Reduction of Rejections*. Draw up a blackboard chart with headings

Items of Rejection
Causes of Rejections
Suggested Corrections

3. Plan a training conference based on the following personnel case. Hans, a naturalized citizen, is a trucker and his work requires that he go to almost every department in the plant. He is a high producer but talks a great deal. At almost every opportunity he tells the men whom he meets in the course of his work that they are not being paid enough for their work and that they ought to insist on the right to decide how their department should be operated. On occasion he has expressed similar views to a few of the men in his own department. He also speaks in a derogatory manner about democracy, capitalism, free enterprise, etc. It is suspected that the men with whom he associates in his after-work hours are being investigated by the government. Many men in the plant who know Hans have chided the other truckers for having Hans in their department and have asked when they were going to get rid of him. Numerous complaints have come to Hans's supervisor but he has disposed of them by saying that Hans just does a lot of talking and that men in the other departments shouldn't pay any attention to him. However, feeling toward Hans has accumulated in his department to the point where ninety per cent of the truckers have signed a petition to have him transferred to another department. What action should the supervisor take?

4. Develop a training conference on the question "Should promotions to supervisory positions continue to be made on the basis of ability first and seniority second or vice versa?"

5. Assume that the morale in your production departments is low. Organize a conference for department heads on the subject "How can we raise the morale of our production employees?" Develop charts with following headings:

Symptoms of Low Morale
Causes
Remedies

6. Assume that a fire in a plant building resulted in damage which will require one week to repair. Two hundred men are employed in this

plant and will be without work and pay unless their services can be used elsewhere. Call an emergency conference of all department heads to work out a plan which will keep these two hundred employees at constructive work until they can return to their regular jobs.

7. Assume that production is falling behind in your department. Call a conference and determine what can be done. Develop charts with following headings:

Facts
Causes
Remedies

8. Plan a policy conference on the subject "What should be the responsibility of our corporation in relation to community projects, The Community Fund, educational campaigns, and requests for financial aid by hospitals and other organizations?"

9. Plan a policy conference on the subject, "Should the vacation period for long-service employees be extended to three weeks?"

10. Plan a policy conference on the subject "Should a pension plan be adopted whereby beginning at the age of sixty an employee would receive two months off and an additional full month each year thereafter until sixty-five when permanent retirement would begin, the off time up to sixty-five to be fully compensated through an insurance plan?"

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